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BIOGRAPHY. HISTORY.

ART. I. *Memoirs of the House of Medici, from its Origin to the Death of Francesco, the second Grand Duke of Tuscany, and of the great Men who flourished in Tuscany within that Period. From the French of Mr. Tenhove, with Notes and Observations, by Sir Richard Clayton, Bart.* 2 vols. 4to. 968 p. Price 2l. 2s. Boards. Robinsons. 1797.

THE importance of the fifteenth century in the history of literature, and the illustrious conduct of the family of the Medici, both in the literary and political scenes of their times and country, are universally known to all who are initiated into the study of letters; and have lately been illustrated in a very pleasing as well as instructive manner, by the elegant and magnificent volumes of Mr. Roscoe: a work that contains the happiest union of biography with general history, that has appeared in our language since the publication of Dr. Middleton's *Life of Cicero*. The Medici, it is well known, were a family in the city of Florence, who, by a happy enlargement of views, founded on a knowledge of the actual state of nations, and unwearied perseverance in commerce, rose to the first dignities in the state. Mr. Tenhove does not think it altogether nugatory to follow and examine certain fabulous accounts concerning the origin of the Medici family, many centuries before the christian era; though he gives no greater credit to them than they deserve. But the first of this family, entitled to particular notice by a historian, who addresses himself to the whole world, is Giovanni de Medici, who was elected gonfalonier in 1422; although many of his ancestors had held that and other offices of magistracy before him, in the course of more than a hundred years. A war, against the advice of Giovanni, was undertaken by the florentine republic, with Filippo Maria, the last duke of Milan of the name of Visconti. The duke's forces beat the florentine army, in an engagement at Sagonara, 1422. The entertainment contained in such a work as that before us may be divided into four heads: the military, political, literary, and biographical. As a specimen of the military transactions of Italy in those times, we shall extract the account, taken by Tenhove from the italian historians, of the battle just mentioned; in which, extraordinary as it may seem, not an individual lost his life. VOL. I, p. 30. 'A single trooper, having fallen under some of the cavalry, was severely bruised, but re-

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covered in a few days. The chronicles of the times are full of instances of a hundred such encounters; and the italian battles of that age may be justly styled the triumphs of humanity. Economists of human blood, these cautious warriors aspired only to the honour of making prisoners that they might ransom. Their lances were never shivered against each other, and they returned from the field with their virgin swords unstained in their hands, the only blood that was spilt being what fell from their horses sides. If a horse broke loose, took fright, or became unruly, it was sufficient to decide the fortune of the day. The whole squadron followed on a gallop, and

“*Quadrupedante putrem sonitu quatit ungula campum.*”

The enemy pursued as fast as they were able, laughing at the confusion of their adversaries, and crying out, “good terms and quarter.” In these early wars indeed the names of the generals were alone tremendous, and we read of Iron arm, Ham-stringer, and a variety of such ludicrous appellations. A venetian general, from his ludicrous stratagems, had the name of “Gattamelata,” and Piccinino not less celebrated, seeing a battle lost, and fearing to be taken prisoner, was concealed in a sack, which probably furnished the idea of one of the cheats of Scapin. The french and spaniards, and in their turn the swiss appeared afterwards on the italian plains, and they changed the whole military system. These comic farces were converted into real tragedies, and instead of tilts and tournaments, we have obstinate and bloody conflicts. “Look at these savages,” said one of Scipio’s descendants, “and see how they run into the jaws of certain death, as if they were to be restored to life in the morning.”—Giovanni lived to see with pleasure a peace concluded between the duke of Milan and the league, for Venice had joined Florence in the war; and dying soon afterwards, left two sons, Cosmo and Lorenzo, to whom, with his last breath, he strongly recommended his own moderation: a counsel which, our author observes, they neither wholly followed nor wholly rejected. Cosmo succeeded to his father, and virtually reigned in Florence, under the honourable title of ‘the father of his country.’ After various pursuits, commercial, literary, and political, and various vicissitudes of fortune, he died in the 75th year of his age.

P. 61. ‘Cosmo de Medici was ambitious without doubt, but ambition is a middle term between vice and virtue. Beyond a certain point it ceases to be virtue; before it reaches that point it is scarcely vice. They who judge of human actions, as they are extraordinary rather than as just, and as brilliant rather than as virtuous, will not fail to applaud the system on which Cosmo governed. There are others to whom his ambition, according to the point of view from which they draw their observations, will appear as laudable, excusable, or criminal: laudable, considering the great talents it brought forward and into play—excusable in contemplation of his formidable opponents, and the just fears that might be entertained from them of his own ruin, and that of the republic.—criminal, if the maxim is well founded that the government, whatever it may be under which we live, is sacred!—The most scrupulous might perhaps be of opinion D’Albizzi would have thought and acted as he did, and that Florence, doomed to perish, might have been dragged to the precipice by the hands of some of her more abandoned sons. The supposition may be correct, yet are we justified on the broad

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found principles of morality, in the commission of an evil action, to prevent another, and are our crimes to be defended by those of others?

It is a lamentable truth that states and kingdoms have often sunk from freedom into servitude, provided they have not been startled by the name, and have suffered without emotion their dearest liberties, by little and little, to be wrested from them. Cosmo, from his knowledge of the world, had learnt the important lesson, and studiously concealing the power he had usurped, he made no attempt at any apparent change in the constitution, whilst he destroyed its substance, and reduced it to a skeleton and to a shadow. An additional honour or title might have created an alarm, and he guarded against it with uncommon care and prudence. Fear and hope, the two great springs of government, were the ladders and the steps by which he mounted; and his masterly use of them raised him, as it were without design, above the other magistrates. Of his fortune he was certainly the founder, but two able friends lent their assistance in pushing on the wheel, his relation Everardo of singular intrepidity, and Pucci Pucci, whose talents and address were so much acknowledged, that the party for a long time bore his name.'

The instruments, by which Cosmo acquired the high station he had usurped, were, according to Mr. Tenhove, immense riches, boundless liberality, captivating manners, a considerable share of eloquence, exquisite art, indefatigable patience, and a zeal for the cause of religion, real or affected. Cosmo formed in his palace a very valuable library, in which he amused himself. Amid the cares of government, and a due attention to his own private affairs, he loved and promoted, to a high degree, the arts and sciences: he encouraged abilities of every kind, fostered genius, and was the patron of letters and learning. These particulars are recorded at length, in the first chapter of vol. 1, which is divided into six. Towards the end of the same chapter, Mr. Tenhove, in order that we may form an estimate of the obligations due to Cosmo de Medici, and his descendants, reviews briefly the state of society before they appeared in it; and traces the consequences to arts, the sciences, and learning, of the capture of Constantinople. This conduct of our author is judicious, and he has executed his design with ability. He pursues the form of thinking into which he was led by the capture of Constantinople, in a chain of criticisms, in chapters 11, 111, and 1v. on the Italian, principally Florentine writers and artists, that flourished before and during the period of Cosmo: poets, philologists, painters, architects, sculptors, &c. His review of the arts is introduced, in the beginning of book 1v, with a learned, ingenious, and just survey of the arts and sciences of Etruria, or the ancient Tuscany.

The most famous architect of the auspicious age of Cosmo was Brunelleschi, who built the famous octagon cupola of the cathedral at Florence, of which Michael Angelo, being employed in the execution of a cupola, for St. Peter's, at Rome, declared, 'that he would not copy it, though to excel it was not in his power.'

P. 293. 'When Cosmo de' Medici had determined to rebuild his palace, he consulted Brunelleschi, who gave him a most superb design. Notwithstanding the greatness of Cosmo's mind the plan appeared to him too extensive and too sumptuous and perhaps he was at the same time a little apprehensive of the envy of his fellow-citizens. When Brunel-

leschi began his plan he thanked his stars that as he had a palace to build, he was employed by a person who had the power and inclination to finish it, when he was informed of Cosmo's resolution he destroyed the design from vexation and resentment. It had been pretended that Cosmo de' Medici afterwards lamented that he had not followed Brunelleschi's ideas, at least the palace which he built is very faulty and open to much criticism. The windows and openings are ill contrived, the cornices are infinitely too heavy and massy, and there are many other imperfections. What a high opinion Cosmo de Medici entertained of Brunelleschi's genius may be collected from one of his letters to pope Eugenius the 14th. "Holy father, I send you a person, whose genius is so great, that if Providence was to give him a chaos to arrange, he would accomplish it."

Considering the sacred personage to whom this is addressed, we must allow it to be a strong recommendation.

Chapter v relates the fortunes of the immediate descendants of Cosmo, Giovanni, and Piero de Medici; and those of the two sons of Piero, Lorenzo, and Giuliano; with various political conspiracies, commotions, and transactions, arising out of republican freedom, opposed to the growing influence, authority, and pretensions of the Medici, and other opulent and powerful families. Lorenzo, escaping from the hands of assassins, by which his brother Giuliano fell, embraced the singular and heroic resolution of throwing himself into the hands of the king Naples, by whom, in league with the pope, the plots against him in Florence had been fomented, in order to endeavour, if possible, at the risk of his life, by detaching the king from the conspiracy, to serve his country. He had communicated his intentions to three or four only of his friends; to whom he had given instructions for the regulation of their conduct. 'Fame,' says his biographer, 'has consecrated the memoirs of Eustache de St. Pierre, of Codrus, and of Decius. Lorenzo has their claim to immortality.' This is proved by the letter of Lorenzo to the states of Florence, inserted at full length, and which might have been dictated by a Curtius, or a Regulus. The spirit of this letter, which takes up a little more than two quarto pages, may be learnt from this brief extract: 'It seems to me that peace is become indispensable to us; and as all other means of obtaining it have proved ineffectual, I have rather chosen to incur some degree of danger myself, than to suffer the city to continue longer under its present difficulties; I therefore mean, with your permission, to proceed directly to Naples, conceiving that as I am the person chiefly aimed at by our enemies, I may, by delivering myself into their hands, perhaps be the means of restoring peace to my fellow-citizens.' Such acts of patriotism will scarcely appear credible in times when an instance is seldom to be found of a political character making a sacrifice, for the public welfare, not of personal safety, but even of emolument and power.

Lorenzo, having succeeded in his negotiation, returns from Naples with great glory, establishes the peace of Italy, and patronises the arts and sciences, of which the account, begun in this, is continued in the 11th chapter, which also relates, among a great variety of events, the death of Lorenzo.

VOL. I, p. 387.—The consequences of Lorenzo's death afford one of the most striking examples of the influence, that the prudence and the talents

talents of a single illustrious individual have on the public interest and happiness. His loss was a national calamity, considered as the scourge of Providence by his afflicted country, and Italy dated from his death the long train of misfortunes she afterwards experienced.

• Lorenzo died esteemed and venerated by all the cotemporary sovereigns.—Ferdinand of Arragon, and Luigi Sforza, the governor of Milan, who were persons of not very common understandings, consulted him as an oracle.—Innocent the VIIIth made him ample recompence for the injuries of his predecessor, and he received many proofs of friendship and regard from Alphonso king of Portugal, and Mathias king of Hungary. These two princes, though separated from the Medici by so vast a distance, had such a congeniality of mind with Lorenzo, as intimately connected them together in spite of any intervening obstacle.—Louis the XIth of France had not a soul like Lorenzo, but he was interested in his good opinion, and shewed him many great marks of kindness and respect.—It was the homage vice is sometimes obliged to pay to virtue.—The turkish sultans Mahomet and Bajazet, determined enemies of the other christian powers, revered his character, and complied with every request he made to them.—Even the ascendancy of his genius and his virtues was felt at Cairo, and the caliph forwarded to him a number of presents as testimonies of his esteem, which were preserved a long time in the arsenal of Florence.

• The sacred term of great has been often ridiculously prostituted to decorate the wicked and the weak.—Lorenzo de' Medici deserved it.—Cold and unfeeling must be the heart that does not justice to his merit!

• Ye friends of letters and the arts, whose happy fortune carries you to Florence, when ye visit his tomb ye will scatter flowers over it, and as your bosom swells with a tributary sigh, ye will pause and say, "here lies Lorenzo!"—The mausoleum is in the celebrated sacristy of the Medici, and his statue, in the style of Michelagnolo, is strongly expressive of his character. He appears seated, his head supported by one of his hands, and in an attitude of deep reflection, the Lorenzo "il penseroso," as he has been sometimes called, though he had also the title of Lorenzo the magnificent, or more simply that of "il magnifico,"—"the magnificent."—The beautiful surname of "the father of the muses," was likewise often applied to him, less glorious indeed than that of "the father of his country," but in him they were united.—"Vale mel gentium," in the jocular words of Augustus, "ebur ex Etruriâ, laser Aretinum, Tyberinum margaritum, berille porsennæ!"

Lorenzo was succeeded by his son Piero, whose precipitate and ruinous conduct expelled him both from the government, and from Florence.

Chap. VII, VIII. The cardinal Giovanni de Medici, who was included in the exile of Piero, on the death of his brother became the head of the family. Through the influence and address of the cardinal, the family interest of the Medici was restored at Florence. On the death of Julius, the young cardinals, who had determined to elect a pope out of their number, fixed unanimously on the cardinal de Medici, who took the name of Leo X. The brilliant pontificate of this sacerdotal prince opens one of the richest fields for observation, that was ever presented in an equal space of time: the ambition of Leo, displayed in different intrigues and projects; the reformation, beginning to spring

from the over-strained powers and pretensions of the popes, and the frequent enormities of the church of Rome; the rapid advancement, under the shelter of Leo's patronage, of literature, arts, and sciences.

Leo X died in the 46th year of his age, and in the height of prosperity; and the male legitimate line of Cosmo de Medici ended with him, as he survived his two brothers, and his nephew Lorenzo.

Mr. Tenhove now enters on a review of the arts and sciences under the pontificate of Leo: the period of Bembo, the historian of Venice, Vida, Sannazarius, Fracastorius, Ariosto, Erasmus, Budæus, Augustus Nyphus, the most celebrated peripatetician of the age, and other names distinguished in the philosophy, such as it was, of those times, and in the walks of poetry, and in general the belles lettres. Among the artists in the reign of Leo, many of whom arrived at the summit of glory, and rivalled those of ancient Greece, we find those of Raphael, Giulio Romano, Titian, Pietro di Cosimo, Andrea del Sarto, one of the greatest painters, and undoubtedly the greatest colourist, without exception, of the florentine school: but above all Leonardo da Vinci, VOL. II, p. 114. * On whose cradle the whole urn was poured to the last drop.—With the finest and most imposing figure he had the noblest heart.—Naturalist, geometrician, botanist, sculptor, painter, musician, poet, improvisatore—this favourite of heaven had all these talents in perfection.—In addition to all these accomplishments, Leonardo da Vinci was an excellent horseman, danced with the greatest elegance, and in the science of arms was particularly excellent. His strength and force were uncommon, and he twisted a horse-shoe as easily as if it had been composed of lead.—Ludovico Sforza, a great judge of merit, and who always acted for the public interest when it was not his own to act otherwise, prevailed on Leonardo da Vinci to settle at Milan, where he placed him at the head of the newly erected academy of painting and sculpture.—Twelve precious volumes of his manuscripts are preserved at Milan, which are considered as invaluable, though the greatest part consists in bare sketches, sometimes of a figure, and sometimes of an instrument or machine, with a short note annexed to it. There is also an explication of the leaden colour of the new moon, which has been attributed to others; an explanation of the relief in painting; some observations on the deception from looking at any object with only one eye; and he suggests that white is not a colour in itself, but a mixture of all the others, which has been since confirmed by the newtonian experiments.

* A noble venetian, who proposed a few years ago to establish an academy at Venice, used to say that he only wished for a catalogue of the best pictures, plaster casts of the best grecian statues, a camera obscura, and Leonardo da Vinci's treatise upon painting.

* Practically speaking, this great genius excelled particularly in expression. There was a wonderful relief in all his works; his abilities extended even to the minutest parts of them, and his children had a grace upon their countenances which nature did but equal, without surpassing.—Prodigious vivacity was joined in him to prodigious patience, and he gave the first example in the art of the effects of unwearied assiduity and strenuous exertion. Unfortunately the importunate idea of perfection, a goading fury to great genius, left him not a single moment at rest; and many exquisite performances were thrown into the flames because

because they did not reach his own imaginary standard. From this reason so few of his pictures are now left.

In this reign architecture, sculpture, engraving, and music also, flourished greatly.

Chap. ix.—Passing over the memoirs of the other children of Lorenzo's brother Giuliano, we hasten to Giulio his natural and posthumous son, in his early life a knight of Rhodes, and an ecclesiastic; afterwards a cardinal; and, on the death of Adrian, elevated to the pontifical throne, under the name of Clement VII. It was in his reign that the city of Rome was taken by storm, by a german imperial army, under the constable Bourbon. The first musquet shot from the walls laid the constable dead on the ground. His troops, animated with the spirit of revenge from the death of their leader, carried the city after a slight resistance. Clement might have saved himself; but the constable's death had afforded him the deceitful hope of being able to repulse the enemy. He therefore shut himself up with thirteen cardinals, in the castle of St. Angelo: but was forced to submit to the emperor, and, after a variety of sufferings and mortifications, recovered his state and grandeur, by an alliance with the emperor Charles V, by whose means also the family of the Medici placed Alessandro de Medici at the head of the florentine government, which was to extend to his son and legitimate posterity in a direct line; and on it's failure, to his next relation. It was thus, by insensible degrees, that the house of Medici arrived at the sovereignty of Florence. But the great point of the restoration of the Medici being secured, the warm friendship, which had lately subsisted between the emperor and Clement VII, began to cool. These two sovereigns had another interview, but their respective interests had changed, and the views of the two powers were now very different. Though the emperor, therefore, wished, that Catherine de Medici should be married to Sforza, the pope accepted the french monarch's overtures for her marriage with Henry, duke of Orleans, second son of Francis I, who had an interview with his holiness at Marseilles, where the nuptials were performed. Soon after this Clement VII died, leaving the pontifical tiara to Alexander Farnese, who took the name of Paul III. Mr. Tenhove reviews the principal features of his reign, the progress of the reformation, and the creation of new religious orders, for the purpose of checking it. It was in the pontificate of Clement that Machiavel began to flourish. Contemporary with the great Florentine secretary were Leonardo of Arezzo, Poggius, and Pietro Aretino: a critical account of which writers concludes chapter ix.

Michelagnolo was born in 1474, survived Clement the VIIIth many years, and died at ninety; but as he was at the head of the florentine school, our author very properly introduces him in

Chap. x, before his scholars. After a review of the character and productions of this various and vast genius, our author returns to memoirs of different individuals of the house of Medici, as Lorenzo de Medici, invested with the dutchy of Urbino, and his sister Clarice, who was married to Filippo Strozzi, the head of one of the first families of Florence, and distinguished by an energy of character, even in times that bred men of vigorous minds and bold genius. Strozzi having put himself at the head of the florentine exiles, who wished to throw off the yoke of the house of Medici, was surprized, taken prisoner, and conveyed to the citadel of Florence, where he floated, for some time, between hope and fear.

P. 253.—‘ The young Cosmo, who had succeeded the duke Alessandro de’ Medici, consulted the emperor on the treatment of his prisoner, and that monarch, who from his austerity generally desired the death of every offender, advised the most rigorous sentence. Strozzi was twice put to the torture, which he bore with fortitude, but his great soul was indignant of life. He perceived a poniard within his reach, and plunged into his heart the instrument of freedom. The tragical end of this illustrious citizen alarmed Italy, and softened it into tears. In his bosom a paper was found with the following contents :

“ TO GOD THE DELIVERER.

“ To prevent being any longer exposed to the rage of my inveterate enemies, and forced by the violence of unjust torments to say something prejudicial to my honour, my family, and my innocent friends, as has lately happened to Giuliano Gondi, I Filippo Strozzi have determined in the manner I am able, however dangerous it may be to my soul, to put an end to my life with my own hands.—I recommend my soul to God, the sovereign author of all mercy, and I humbly beseech him, if I am not worthy to be admitted into his glory, graciously to allot me an existence with Cato of Utica, and those other virtuous men whose deaths have been like mine.—I request don Giovanni di Luna, the commandant of the citadel, to make a sausage with my blood, and to send it to the cardinal Cibo, that he may be satiated after my death with what he always longed for during my life.—I desire also Giovanni di Luna to bury my body in S. Maria Novella, near my wife, and if that cannot be allowed, it may be wherever my friends think proper.—I request my sons to conform to my will made in this citadel.—And thou, emperor ! I beseech thee with all due respect to inform thyself better of the conduct of the poor florentines, and to act otherwise respecting them than thou hast already done, for the welfare of the state, except it is thy wish to ruin it entirely !

“ *Philippus Strozza, jamjam moriturus.*

“ *Exoriare aliquis nostris ex ossibus ultor **.”

Filippo Strozzi left by his consort Clarice de’ Medici a numerous family, and such of their descendants as have been celebrated for their fortune or their talents are briefly mentioned.

Chap. xi gives the history of Catherine de’ Medici, whom we have seen married to the duke of Orleans, and who became queen of France, from her birth to her death in 1589. A very candid account is given of the conduct and character of this ‘ wicked woman, mistress of a vast genius and a wonderful capacity.’

P. 316.—‘ During the thirty years she governed France, like the treacherous female of Archilocus, who held a pitcher of water in one hand and a fire-brand in the other : she created public dissensions, and appeased them as often as she pleased. Her remedies, however, were sometimes only perfidious palliatives, which in the

* * P. *Virgil Æneid.* iv. 625.

“ May some avenger from my ashes rise !”

end increased the fever, and aggravated the inflammation. Her ambition was of the most flagitious species—peaceable authority was beneath her notice—she had tranquillity in horror—storms and tempests were the first pleasures of her life—and if Providence had given her a world to govern, she would soon have reduced it to a chaos.

The duke Alessandro de' Medici was murdered by his own cousin, Lorenzo, who dipped his hand in the blood of his slaughtered victim, and wrote with it, on the wall, a line from Virgil,

“ Vincet amor patriæ, laudumque immensa cupido.”

All historians agree respecting the profligacy of Alessandro's character. He trampled equally on public decency and public freedom. ‘ But Lorenzo, from the moment he murdered his prince, his cousin, and his friend, appeared to have lost his understanding. He only executed half of his project, and nothing succeeded with him the rest of his life.’ He had proposed, as we are informed in another part of the memoirs, to own the deed, to publish what he had done, to invite the citizens to resume their power, and to reap in peace and glory, the fruits of his danger and his labours: but he was seized with terror, and fled to Venice, where, nearly ten years after Alessandro's murder, he was, in his turn, assassinated by two of the late duke's guards. Giulio de' Medici, the natural son of Alessandro, was, at the death of his father, a child of only five years of age. Cardinal Cibo, Alessandro's prime-minister, proposed him to the council of forty-eight as Alessandro's successor. The intention and the stratagem were visible. But it is observed by our author, that it was the infancy of Giulio that excluded him, rather than his illegitimacy.

Mr. Tenhove having taken a view of the descendants of Cosmo de' Medici to the total extinction of the last branch of the family, returns, in chap. xii, to the grandsons of Salvestro, and their progeny, to that of the younger sons of Bicci, grandfather of Cosmo the great, and lastly to Lorenzo, the younger brother of Cosmo, and his posterity.

Cosmo, the son of the celebrated general Giovanni de' Medici and Maria Salviati, was born at Florence in 1520. He was only seven years of age when he lost his father, and during the siege of Florence his mother retired with him to Venice, to avoid the animosity of the florentine citizens, who seemed to have sworn destruction to the Medici. He had not reached his eighteenth year when the council of forty-eight, influenced by affection, interest, and fear, called him to the government of Florence. He had the title only of chief of the florentine republic, with a very moderate revenue, and a council of eight citizens had the principal direction of affairs. Cosmo accepted the conditions, and was proclaimed on the 9th of january, 1537. Cosmo conducted himself with great prudence and ability. By falling in with the views, and courting the emperor, he found means to free Florence from the imperial yoke. The roman pontiff bestowed by a bull on Cosmo and his successors the title of grand duke of Tuscany. Cosmo went to kiss
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the slipper of his benefactor, who placed with his own hands a royal crown upon his head in presence of the sacred college.

P. 457.—‘ Cosmo had only completed his fiftieth year, when he changed his whole plan of life and ceased to be HIMSELF!—In peace with all the powers of Europe, and firmly established in his government, he quitted entirely the care and management of his affairs.—Plunging into dissipation, he renounced that sober and active life to which he had hitherto accustomed himself, and passed from unexampled activity to the most lethargic indolence.—His infatuation for pleasures of every species led him into actions which disgraced him, and were totally inconsistent with that prudence for which he had been so much admired.—Eleonora de Toledo dying, Cosmo married a second wife, Camilla Martelli, a Florentine, but a second marriage was not the least of his indiscretions.—They threw every thing into confusion around him, and even threatened the total ruin of the family.—Such an entire change in the habits of his life might be naturally expected to have some influence on his constitution.—He languished under a paralytic stroke almost a year, and died on the 21st of April 1574, at the age of fifty-five years, of which he had reigned thirty-eight.’

The Italian writers, with much plausibility and genius, expatiate on a resemblance of character between Cosmo and Augustus Caesar. He was, like the rest of the Medici, a great patron of the arts and sciences; and among the Tuscans who flourished under this government, there were some of the most distinguished persons of history: the celebrated historian Francesco Guicciardini, and his worthy continuator Battista Adriani; Ludovico Guicciardini, the nephew of Francesco; Benedetto Varchi, in purity of language accounted superior even to Guicciardini; Pietro a noble Florentine, one of the greatest critics that Italy has yet produced, of whom it was said, that he ‘ennobled pedantry,’ Donato Gianotti, Benvenuto Cellini, with a great number of other illustrious names, duly noticed and characterised in the work before us. He also established an academy for the arts.

The first grand duke had by his consort, Eleonora de Toledo, five sons, Francesco, Giovanni, Garzia, Ferdinando, and Pietro; and three daughters, Maria, Isabella, and Lucrezia; besides several natural children.

P. 507.—‘ After Cosmo’s death Francesco governed his country with great moderation and prudence, but * his reign proved barren of remarkable incidents and was not marked by any great events.

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* Here we cannot help making a remark on the connective *but*. To speak grammatically, the writer here uses a *disjunctive*, when he should have used a *conjunctive* connective. There is no opposition between a prudent reign, and a reign barren of remarkable events; on the contrary, there is a connection between them; our author should, therefore, have used what they call the continuative conjunction *and*. ‘ Francesco governed with moderation and prudence, and his reign was not marked by any great events.’ Either our author is

‘ Francesco’s last years did not correspond with the happier commencement of his reign.—An unfortunate attachment overwhelmed him with disgrace, and conducted him to a premature end.—Joanna his consort, the daughter, sister, aunt, and niece of emperors, whom the florentines always called queen Giovanna, died in 1578, and the grand duke married Bianca Cappello, a venetian lady, who, though of one of the first venetian families, had disgraced herself by her conduct, and lived a long time previously with Francesco as his mistress.—History here becomes perfectly romantic, though strictly true, and the loves of the grand duke and his favourite were followed by the most tragical effects.

‘ Some florentine merchants had employed Pietro Buonaventuri, of a decent family in Florence, as their agent at Venice. The young man had an agreeable person, and he had the assurance to endeavour, under false pretences, to seduce the affections of Bianca Capello, a daughter of the illustrious family of Capello. His insinuations and artifices succeeded, he prevailed on her to quit her father’s house—to throw herself into his arms—and to follow him to Florence.—The step was fatal, and she was soon reduced to want and misery.—From her education she was ignorant of every honest and industrious method of supporting herself, and to return to Venice was to be immured for life within the walls of a convent. Beautiful and artful, she determined to profit by her personal charms, and as she had sacrificed her honour she sold her beauty.—After she had lived for some time the life of prostitution, a report of her attractions was accidentally made to the grand duke by one of his courtiers, and he determined to see her. The moment was decisive both for Francesco and Bianca Capello. At the very first interview he became enamoured. His attachment was not even attempted to be concealed from Bianca’s husband, and the three personages formed what the italians called “*Il triangolo equilatero*”—the equilateral triangle.—The grand duke liberally rewarded Pietro Buonaventuri for his complaisance, and the amour continued till Pietro’s death. The grand duke soon afterwards became a widower, and having some thoughts of a second marriage with the hopes of a family he thought it most prudent to put an end to his connection with Bianca, and on the separation loaded her with presents and favours. But his attachment was too powerful to be conquered. Bianca had no sooner left him than she was recalled, and he conceived a more extraordinary project. “Of what use is it,” he reasoned with himself, “to look into uncertain futurity for a son the object of my wishes? A short ceremony, a priest, and a few latin words will legitimate my son Antonio and enable him legally to succeed me.” With this resolution he sent for Bianca, and communicated his intentions to the government of Venice. That state by the marriage of Caterina Cortona with the bastard Lusignan had once appropriated to itself the

is defective in sentiment or in grammar. As to tropes and figures they are graceful when they arise naturally out of an animated sentiment; but they ought not to be sought after, in any composition, and least of all, historical composition. But an attention to grammatical accuracy is indispensable in every species of writing.

kingdom

kingdom of Cyprus and the island of Candia, and its ambition again revived. The senate thought by such an alliance with the grand duke, it might reap some political advantages, and its leading members informed Francesco that they had adopted Bianca Capello as the daughter of St. Mark.—Francesco immediately married her, and from the caprice of fortune a courtesan became one of the first princesses of Italy. Their union was however an object of public ridicule, and Italy echoed with the song,

“ Il gran-duca di Toscana,
Ha sposata una putana,
Gentildonna Veneziana.”

Bianca Capello was endued with a thousand seductive accomplishments, but devoid of honour and of virtue, she became every day more and more ambitious and less scrupulous in the manner of gratifying her wishes.—Despairing of being able to preserve her station and that of her son, if Ferdinando and Pietro the grand duke's brothers survived him, and wishing to secure herself, she conceived the frightful scheme of removing the eldest by violent means. He was to pass by Poggio the grand duke's country residence in his way to Rome, but some whispers of what was in agitation had escaped, and Ferdinando was on his guard. An entertainment was prepared for him and a favourite dish, of which he was earnestly pressed by Bianca to taste from its having been expressly provided for him. Ferdinando pretended illness, and the grand duke who was ignorant of Bianca's stratagem but suspected his brother's reasons, to convince him of their injustice eat very heartily of the dish, which had been poisoned for his brother. Bianca rising up, observed the business was at an end, and in despair took the remainder of the poison.—The grand duke expired in terrible convulsions the same night on the 10th of October 1587, and the criminal Bianca followed him in a few hours.*

Francesco, like the other Medici, patronized letters and the arts. He left various monuments of his magnificence and taste in building. And it was in his reign, about the year 1582, that the academy ‘Della Crusca’ took its rise: though in fact, it was at first only a committee* of the great academy founded by the first grand duke.

The collections lately published by Mr. Roscoe, on a portion of the subject treated of by Mr. Tenhove, have naturally excited a curiosity of inquiring into the whole. It was this circumstance, probably, that suggested the idea of a translation of Tenhove, with notes and observations. And it is no mean praise to say, that this publication is perused with much pleasure and satisfaction, even by the readers of that by Mr. Roscoe.

The history of literature, arts, and sciences, is commonly divided into four grand eras: the age of Alexander the Great; that of

* The translator has rendered it, ‘it was only at first a committee,’ frequent instances of grammatical inaccuracy; and particularly the wrong collocation of the adjectives *alone*, and *only*, occur.

Augustus Cæsar; that of Leo x; and the other Medici; and that of Lewis xiv of France, and queen Anne of England. Of all these eras, the third is the most striking. The first two are shaded by distance of time; the last, though the most recent, is not so strongly marked as any of the others, by bold and discriminating lines. But the revival, the rise, or resurrection of literature and arts, as a sun above a horizon involved for a thousand years in almost universal darkness, is a splendid and attractive object. This sun, enlightening, warming, and invigorating the human mind, produced a vast variety of fruit, pleasing to the taste, and delightful to the eye. The same breach of ancient times, which melted rude minds into a relish and pursuit of elegant and refined pleasure, inspired a sense of the dignity and the rights of human nature: contests arose between the feudal and the republican spirit: a fermentation, in a word, was excited of both arts and arms. Mr. Tenhove has surveyed this wide and rich field of observation, with the eye of a scholar, a critic, a moral philosopher, and a statesman. He is learned, candid, judicious, and, for a dutchman, uncommonly lively. It would be difficult, perhaps impossible, to fix on any family that have, on the whole, deserved so well of mankind; that are better entitled to the praise of true glory, or that have displayed for so long a space of time, and in so many instances, the same genius, disposition, and habits of body and mind; or illustrated so clearly, the existence of a family as well as of a personal character. This last circumstance might, with great propriety, have been noticed by the author, in the conclusion of his work; from which we learn, beyond all doubt, that the Medici, for a course of near 300 years, were, on the whole, highly distinguished for three things: a taste for letters, arts, and sciences; magnificence in their manner of living, and liberality of disposition; and that most of them died in the flower of their age.

With regard to the notes and observations, by the translator, sir R. C., they show a very considerable share of learning, as well as sound criticism and just reflection. He has, in not a few instances, very happily connected certain particulars in the memoirs with recent occurrences. For example, in verification of a prediction of Montesquieu's respecting the venetians, stigmatized by the florentines with the name of paper-faces, to denote their want of spirit and animation, sir R. observes, that 'the want of public virtue' had produced among the venetians that indifference, that indolence, and that total torpidity respecting the public interest or safety, which left the government without force or resource; and it fell without a struggle even on the appearance of an enemy.—It is an awful warning, and ought not to be lost!—p. 433.

It is a very great defect in these memoirs, which contain a great many very curious historical facts, and which may be of use both to the historian and philosopher, that there is no account of dates, either at the beginning of chapters, the tops of pages, or in the margins.

H. H.

ART.

ART. II. *The Life of Catharine II, Empress of Russia. An enlarged Translation from the French. With seven Portraits elegantly engraved, and a correct Map of the Russian Empire.* 3 vols. 8vo. About 470 pages each. Price 11. 1s. in boards. Longman. 1798.

WE have already noticed the original, of which this is said to be 'an enlarged translation,' [See our Rev. Vol. xxvii, p. 6,] and shall here transcribe the preface to the present edition:

'The first particular in this publication, which will strike the reader's notice, is, that it is enlarged by considerably more than one half. It was once the intention of the editor to have distinguished by crotchets the additional matter wherever it occurs; but upon consideration, this method would have so disfigured the page that he presently abandoned the idea. He then thought, that when his task was completed he would point it out in a page or two of references at the opening of the first volume: but on beginning this attempt, he found it, from the variety, the number, and the intricacy of the passages, utterly impracticable. For this imperfection then, (and alas! he fears for many more) he prays the indulgence of the public. To the person who reads solely for information and amusement, it is of little importance from whom he receives them, and for the purposes of curiosity or criticism, a reference may easily be had to the french publication.

'From the abundance of materials in the editor's possession, his greatest difficulty has been what to reject, in order not to exceed the limits he prescribed to himself in pursuance of the admonition of his booksellers. They have been fetched from all quarters, and he has put them together according to the best of his judgment. To M. Storch he is greatly indebted; in some degree also to baron von Sternberg, to M. Bachmeister, to M. Georgi, M. Hupel; and in a few instances concerning the affairs of Poland, and those of Moldavia, to that excellent work of our own country, the Annual Register, which, as perfectly corresponding with the period of time, and as useful to the amplification of the narrative, he has thrown in as he found them; not having the vanity to imagine that he could improve the style by alteration, he thought none necessary merely for the sake of changing it, where it was impossible but that it must have been for the worse. Of this, though a very inconsiderable circumstance, it was proper to take notice.

'As the accounts he has put together, are in general new to the english reader, and particularly relate to one of the greatest characters that ever filled a throne, he humbly hopes he has not missed his aim of so blending information and entertainment as to meet the public approbation.'

In enumerating his obligations, the translator has omitted to mention the name of Mr. de Rulhieres [See our Rev. Vol. xxvii, p. 134] from whose *Anecdotes* a large portion of the materials before us is extracted; it is but fair however to observe, that the author of the original work seems to have had frequent recourse to that very able and interesting publication, and consequently may have inserted the passages we allude to.

The language of these volumes is at times incorrect, from the haste, perhaps, with which they were brought forward; but the arrangement

arrangement is superiour to that of the french edition, and there are many valuable additions, not to be found in the former. o.

ART. III. *A new and general Biographical Dictionary; containing an historical and critical Account of the Lives and Writings of the most eminent Persons in every Nation; particularly the British and Irish, from the earliest Accounts of Time to the present Period; wherein their remarkable Actions and Sufferings, their Virtues, Parts and Learning are accurately displayed, with a Catalogue of their literary Productions.* 15 Vols. New Edition greatly enlarged and improved. Robinsons, &c. Price 5 Guineas in Boards.

ALL history, civil, military, and ecclesiastical, is, in one sense, biography; for it is a narration of the conduct and acts of men. Biography, however, in the more strict and confined sense of the word, has many advantages above all other history. In general history the conduct of individuals is portrayed as it were abstractedly, and without constantly bringing forward the individuals themselves; the conduct of nations is described oftentimes without it's being referred to one presiding mind, and, in great events, too frequently we do not preserve a sense of individuality of action.

Thus the reader peruses the pages of history without *interest*; he places not himself in the situation of him whose actions are thus abstractedly recorded; he is not agitated by his fears, or animated by his hopes; he is not now tortured by suspense, now exulting in triumph; he admires the conduct of the individual, without sympathizing with the man.

But biography brings forward a character, delineates his conduct, describes his circumstances, shows him in moments of despondency, and in seasons of cheerful hope, now sketching his plans, and now in the ardour of execution; we place ourselves in his condition, we feel all his agitations, and, for the moment, we become what the individual whose life we are perusing *was*. Hence the superiour power and charm of biography.

Concerning the competency of writers of biography to the task they undertake, it may perhaps be affirmed with truth, that no man can possibly furnish the *complete* life of any other person, and that each individual alone is competent to become *his own biographer*. You demand the history of the life of a human being? Such a history ought to furnish an account of his actions, his motives, and his means. It should portray his dispositions, his principles, and the way in which they were formed. Who can supply the information necessary for such a task? None, except the individual himself, perhaps not even he. Imperfection is written upon every work of man; and no man ever yet wrote the life of any other person with any tolerable degree of exactness. What have the best biographers shown us? They have detailed a few events, they have narrated certain actions, but they have not given us the history of the man. They have not shown us the yet unformed mind, they have not traced the operation of it's first instruction, they have not stated the influence of it's early impressions, they have not described the

the emotions of the heart, the birth day of intellect, the maturity of genius, the charm of literature, the force of habit, the imperiousness of circumstances; they have not exposed the mysterious links of that chain, which connects the parts of human conduct, and binds together the destinies of life.

What would we not give for the correct history of one intelligent being? What difficulties would it not solve, what doubts would it not dissipate! Liberty, necessity, virtue, vice, we should then comprehend your meaning, and lay you at rest for ever! But let not man demand what heaven has forbidden, let us be contented with our condition, and seek not to leave our station and 'rush into the skies.'

The most complete pieces of biography, and the most instructive which modern times have furnished, are those which have been given to us by the individuals whose lives they portray. Rousseau's and Franklin's are, in this class, entitled to distinguished eminence; and Gibbon's is not unworthy of praise. The next in the order of excellence are those which, though not written by the individuals themselves, are taken from their communications, and furnished by those who had great opportunities of personal and intimate intercourse. Such are Boswell's life of Johnson, and Johnson's life of Savage. The next species of biography which claims our attention is that, which, though not collected from intimate or personal knowledge of the individual, is nevertheless collected from contemporary writers with infinite labour and care, and delivered to us in all the plenitude of variety and the circumstantiality of detail. Of this class is Jortin's life of Erasmus.

That species of biography, which though useful, has the humblest claim to attention, is that which collects from documents, some true, some doubtful, the rude outline of various characters, and presents to the eye a vast assemblage of unfinished drawings. Here are likenesses taken in an hour, in which nothing is preserved but the outline of the countenance, and the colour of the hair. Of this class is the work which we now announce to the public. A motley group of men of all nations are here made to figure on the canvass, and you may see them, as you see an individual, quickly passing your window. You may, perhaps, know him again when you see him in a crowd. But however imperfect such a work of biography must necessarily be, and however imperfect this work really is, it cannot be denied, that it is extremely improved upon the former editions. More than half of the lives are written anew, and additional new lives are very numerous indeed. We have indeed remarked some omissions, which surprised us, of persons who have long been dead. Of this number is Law, bishop of Carlisle.

Many an orthodox churchman has declaimed vehemently against Kippis's edition of the *Biographia Britannica*, on account of the honours there given to authors of the presbyterian school; we can assure such, that no similar objection can be made to these volumes, for the learned editors have shown no particular deference to the manes of dissenters. We do not mean to say, however, that the dissenters are not treated with fairness in this dictionary, the friends
of

of their 'modest Foster' will be satisfied with the account given of him, and many others have ascribed to them their full share of merit; but yet there now and then appears, especially in the latter volumes of the work, a remark, which shows plainly enough, that the editors were rather disposed to *tolerate* than to *praise* dissenters.

We are certainly far enough from considering this dictionary as the repository of the most valuable species of biography, for half a dozen lives, written with all the circumstantiality of complete biography, if man could produce any thing of the kind worthy of this title, would have required as many volumes as are here devoted to record the conduct of thousands of remarkable men; yet the work is very valuable and important. It is a compendium of what has been said of all men in all countries, and made with as much judgment as compendiums generally are. It is an excellent book of reference for the reader of history, who may thus learn a little of every man whose name shines in the pages which occupy his attention. It is a collection of anecdotes adapted to him who would purchase much and various reading at a small price. In one word, it is a work, which the scholar need not disdain to place in his library, and which the man of business, and the gentleman, may make their companion. We offer to the reader no extracts, because any, sufficiently copious to form his judgment, would exceed the limits of our Review.

Y. S.

ART. IV. *The History of the Reign of Shab Aulum, the present Emperor of Hindostan, containing the Transactions of the Court of Delhi, and the neighbouring States, during a Period of thirty-six Years, interspersed with geographical and topographical Observations on several of the principal Cities of Hindostan. With an Appendix, containing the following Tracts, viz. 1. An Account of modern Delhi; 2. A Narrative of the late Revolution at Rampore, in 1794; 3. Translation of a Letter, written in the Persian Language, from the Prince Mirza Jawwaun Bukht Jehaundar Shab, eldest Son of the King of Delhi, to his Majesty George III, King of Great Britain, in the Year 1785; with a Copy of the Original; 4. Translation of an Elegy, written by the King of Delhi, after the Loss of his Sight. By William Francklin, Captain in the Honourable East India Company's Service, Bengal Establishment; Member of the Asiatic Society, and Author of A Tour to Persia. 4to. 254 pages. With a Map of Hindostan, and four engraved Portraits. Pr. 1l. 1s. in boards. Faulder. 1798.*

Among the great and ignoble band of our countrymen in the east, engaged in the vain and feverish pursuits of wealth and ambition, it is not a little pleasing to behold some few individuals devoting their attention to the cultivation of science, and the diffusion of useful knowledge. To rear and encourage this taste was the anxious labour of the late sir William Jones, a man whose powers of memory and genius, and extent of acquirement, were equalled only by the simplicity of his manners, and the purity of his heart. Happily there were found a few persons worthy to partake the lessons of so excellent an instructor; and under his control and direction, a society was established in Calcutta, by whose learned

and valuable researches the astronomy of the hindoos has been successfully developed, while many of the fables of ancient mythology, and the apocryphal tales of Herodotus, have been traced in the sacred books of that ancient people.

Among the first pupils of this antiquarian sage was our author: who, at a period of life when men are generally occupied by frivolity and dissipation, undertook a long and hazardous journey to Persia, being influenced by a laudable curiosity, and emulous of literary fame. After surmounting many obstacles and dangers, he reached Shiraz, the birth-place of the poet Hafez, the Anacreon of the eastern world; at which place the persian language is still spoken in all it's purity: and, sensible that the true character of a nation is to be learned only by studying the manners of the people in their private habits, he domesticated himself in the family of a learned persian. On his return to Bengal capt. F. published his *Tour to Persia*; and continuing still the study of oriental languages, he translated, on the suggestion of sir William Jones, a beautiful tale replete with imagery, and descriptive of the simple and artless manners of the hindoos, before their happiness was disturbed, and their innocence corrupted, by the ambition and avarice of their neighbours. Encouraged by the approbation justly bestowed on these performances, he composed the publication now before us.

In a busy and eventful reign of thirty years, we are presented with a melancholy picture of the instability of human greatness, and behold the power of the imperial race of Timur, for ever extinguished. Four hundred years ago, the empire of that mighty conqueror extended from the walls of China to the Thracian Bosphorus, and from the plains of Siberia to the Eastern Ocean. Through the weakness of his descendants, and ambition of his generals, this vast empire was destroyed in almost as short a space as it was acquired; and, in the sixth generation, was reduced to the single province of Mawar ul Naher on the banks of the Oxus: when the genius of the founder reviving in Babuc, he established his authority over the larger part of Hindostaun. It was confirmed by the victories, and still more by the policy of Acbar, who, uniting the enterprize and valour of a hero, with the wisdom and liberality of a philosopher, without any partial regard to the religion or country of his subjects, dealt to all an equal and impartial justice. During three succeeding generations, the empire was extended from the indian Caucasus to the cape of Comorin, and from the mountains of Thibet to the Indus. But the subsequent reigns exhibit an unvarying scene of folly and weakness in the prince, and anarchy, and bloodshed among the nobles, until we now find the fairest provinces of Hindostaun possessed by a body of british merchants, and the mogul himself, exhausted by calamity, and tortured by bodily infirmity, supporting a wretched existence, as the prisoner of a tribe of hindoo soldiery; which seems destined by an over-ruling providence, ere long to free the happy and fruitful country of Hindostaun from the yoke of foreign dominion, after eight hundred years of oppression and misery.

As a specimen of captain F.'s talents for description and narration, we shall select an account of the family and hereditary possessions of Madajee Scindia, one of the great feudataries of the mahratta government,

vernment, who, by acquiring possession of the person of the mogul, has obtained a legal sanction to his ambition, and by maintaining a large body of men, armed and disciplined after the european manner, has been able to assume a decided ascendancy over his co-feudataries, and even over the paishwah himself, the chief of the mahratta nation. Madhajee Scindiah Putteli Bahadur was descended from a rajpoot family. His father, Ranojee Scindiah, was an officer in the service of Bajerow, who, in the latter end of the reign of Rajah Sahoo was paishwah of the mahratta state. The supineness and effeminacy of the court of Delhi, and the distracted state of the empire towards the close of the reign of Mahmud Shah, rendered easy the subjugation of the Malwah province. On that expedition Ranojee Scindiah accompanied the paishwah. The services and ability displayed by Ranojee, during the campaign, were rewarded with the management of the province, which was confirmed in jagheer to his descendants by Rajah Sahoo. Ranojee had four sons; Appagee, Tagee, Tookagee, and Scindiah. Appagee was slain in a civil broil in the jynaghur province; Tookagee and Tagee perished in the memorable battle of Paniput, in 1762.

Scindiah in that action, though only seventeen years of age, displayed a genius and spirit which well foretold his future greatness: being desperately wounded, and unable to follow the route of the few survivors of the mahratta army, he was secretly taken care of in the camp of the Abdallee. Recovered from his wounds, he was privately removed from this asylum, and by his protectors conveyed into Deccan. He then assumed the government of his patrimonial estate of Ougein. From his intense application to business, aided by the endowments of a vigorous mind, he soon acquired considerable influence in the mahratta state; and was early considered as one of the principal jagheer Dars. In 1770, he accompanied Holkar and Beesajee into Hindostaun, where his actions have been recorded in the preceding pages.

Malwah, the greater part of which is the inheritance of the Scindiah family, is in length two hundred and forty-five coss, in breadth two hundred and thirty. On the north it is bounded by the Agimere Soobah; on the south by Baglarah; on the east by part of Agrah and Allahabad; and on the west by Guzerat. The principal rivers that flow through this fertile and extensive tract, are the Chumbul, the Sind, and the Nerbuddah: but it is watered by many other smaller streams. Though higher than the rest of Hindostaun, the land of Malwah is in general fertile; in it are reared numerous herds of cattle; and it abounds in opium, indigo, and tobacco. In former times the revenues were computed at four million sterling; this, of late years, however, has been much reduced; and even Scindiah, in his collections, can realize only a million.

We could have wished that our author had entered into a fuller detail of the character and conduct of general du Boigne, to whose fidelity, attachment, and valour, Scindia is chiefly indebted for the power and pre-eminence he has lately acquired.

The sufferings, and fortitude under them, of the unfortunate Shah Aulum, whose eyes were put out by Gholaum Caudir, are related by our author with equal perspicuity and feeling, and form the concluding part of his instructive and interesting history. The

emperour, surviving the loss of his sight, during his confinement so-
laced himself in contemplative reveries, and in composing elegiac
verses descriptive of his deplorable state. It is due to the feelings
of our readers, to inform them, that the inhuman Gholaum Caudir
was punished by Scindiah. His ears, nose, arms, and legs were
cut off; and, in this mutilated state he was sent to Shah Aulum,
but died on his road to Delhi. The principal circumstances relating
to the cruel treatment of the emperour are selected from a persian
journal, written by an eye-witness, Seyud-Rezzi Khan, on the
scene of their perpetration, and thrown, by our author, into the
form of a narrative. The journal is given at full length by cap-
tain Jonathan Scott *, in his excellent translation (with commen-
taries) and continuation of Ferishta's History of the Dekkan.
Never was any thing invented by tragedy more fitted to awaken
sympathetic sorrow, to arrest the tumult of selfish concerns, and
excite serious and profound reflection on the nature and condition
of man, and the instability of fortune, than this plain story. This
is a real tragedy: a model which poets might be proud to imitate;
but which it is impossible for art to excel. The persons in the
drama command attention and interest by their exalted station: the
reverse of fortune in which they are involved is extreme: insatiable
avarice and relentless cruelty triumph for a time over long-suffering
patience, and resignation to the will of God: but soon the tide is
turned, the tyrant is dreadfully punished, and relief and consolation are
afforded to many innocent sufferers. Throughout the whole of this
most affecting drama, the principles of human nature, and the con-
duct of the passions, are displayed with a force similar to that of some
convulsion of the earth, laying open the mineral strata: so that the
tragedy of Shah Aulum is a text on which the metaphysician and
moral philosopher is invited and solicited to make many comments.

Captain F. has, perhaps, inserted as much, and interwoven in his
narrative as many particulars and circumstances relating to this
heart-rending catastrophe, as was permitted by the laws of just pro-
portion to his design, or the rules of composition; yet are there two
circumstances recorded in the narrative of Rezzi Khan, for which
most of his readers would have thanked him: one relating to the
generosity of Shah Aulum; the other to the remorse of Gholaum
Caudir. The social and benevolent passions sometimes brave and
defy dangers, before which mere self-love will sit in silent submission.
Shah Aulum gave up all that he had to the Rohilla, resigned himself
to his fate, and even begged to be put to death, that he might be
freed from misery. But when that villain ordered his attendants to
lift up the princes and dash them on the ground, which they did,
'Shah-Aulum, in the agony of his grief, exclaimed, traitor, for-
bear such cruelty on my children, in my sight.' Could Shakspeare
have painted the progress of conscious guilt, through the various
efforts to silence the inmate of the breast, to remorse and despair, by

* To whom as well as to other gentlemen, as major Reynolds,
Mr. Johnstone, of Lucknow, major Kirkpatrick, colonel Palmer,
captain Salkeld, &c., our author makes acknowledgments in the most
liberal manner.

any combination of fabulous circumstances, more impressive than Gholaum Caudir's having recourse to feasting, dancing, singing, and intoxication? His troubled mind, exhausted by these vain endeavours, sinks into sleep. But this is soon interrupted by horrid dreams. He awakes, and weeping cries 'I will restore all the property I have taken, but cannot replace the eyes of Shah Aulum.'

We shall conclude this melancholy scene, with the following natural and just reflection thereon by our author: 'A british reader might, on this review, direct his inspection inwards; and, while he execrates the insatiable spirit of avarice, and detestable ambition, which can thus actuate men to the commission of such enormities, he may place before his fatigued mind the more pleasing contrast of the situation and invaluable blessings of his native land.' B. B.

TRANSACTIONS OF SOCIETIES.

ART. V. *Memoirs of the Literary and Philosophical Society of Manchester.* Vol. IV. Part 2. 8vo. 380 pages. Six plates. Price 6s. in boards. Cadell and Davies. 1796.

THE first part of this volume of the transactions of the Manchester society was noticed in vol. xx of our Review. In the preface to that half volume, several reasons were stated in apology for the lateness of its appearance; but though the part which is now before us has been equally delayed, we do not find any cause whatever assigned. The circumstances that have thus tended to prevent the regular publication of the labours of the society, whatever they are, should as soon as possible be obviated, as much of the utility of such periodical works must necessarily depend on their early and regular appearance.

The papers of the present half volume contain a stock of materials not less important, or less useful, than that of those which have preceded it.

The first article is of the mathematical kind. Its title is

The Laws of Motion of a Cylinder, compelled by the repeated Strokes of a falling Block to penetrate an Obstacle, the Resistance of which is an invariable Force. By Mr. John Gough.—Communicated by Dr. Holme.—We cannot give a better account of the purport of this paper, than that by which its ingenious author has introduced it.

P. 273. 'No practical benefit is to be expected from the following essay; for, though the idea is evidently borrowed from the pile-engine, yet the operations of this machine are so much embarrassed by friction and other irregular forces, that it would be absurd to compare its effects with the conclusions contained in the present paper: the piece is purely speculative, and exhibits a few mathematical truths, which perhaps may afford some amusement to those, who are partial to such inquiries.'

Art. 2. *Sketch of the History of Sugar, in the early Times, and through the Middle Ages.* By W. Falconer, M. D. F. R. S. &c. Communicated by Dr. Percival.—This is a sketch that may save future inquirers much trouble, and which is equally honourable to the industry

and research of the author; though it is far from furnishing us with a complete history of sugar.

Art. 3. *Copy of a Letter from Thomas Beddoes, M. D. Physician, at Bristol Hot-wells, to Mr. Thomas Henry, F. R. S. &c.*—This letter is useful, as containing an account of a chemical fact, similar to those stated by Mr. Willis in the former part of the present volume [see our Rev. Vol. xx, p. 417].

Art. 4. *Some Observations on the Flints of Chalk-beds, in a Letter from Thomas Beddoes, M. D. Physician, at Bristol Hot-Wells, to Mr. Thomas Henry, F. R. S. &c.*—In this letter, the mineralogist will meet with many hints, reflections, and conjectures, on the manner in which flints are formed in their chalky beds, though the doctor does not appear to have suggested any decided hypothesis on the subject.

Art. 5. *Experiments and Observations on the Vegetation of Seeds. By Mr. John Gough. Communicated by Dr. Holme.*—This is a very interesting experimental paper, on a subject that has been too little examined in that way. As the seeds of many plants will remain in the ground for years, in a state of complete inactivity, unless the land be broken up, it becomes a matter of great consequence, to discover what the circumstances are that give life and vigour to the vegetative principle. This is the object of the experiments that are here detailed. They seem to have been made with much care and attention, though not in our opinion sufficiently varied to afford the necessary conclusions. Other sorts of grain and seeds should have been employed as well as barley and peas. As the limits of our Review do not admit of giving the author's trials in detail, we must be contented with offering a few of his conclusions.

P. 320.—'Now,' says he, 'if the imperfections of my apparatus do not lead me into error, it is plain that seeds, in the act of vegetation, take oxygene from the atmosphere, part of which they retain, and reject the rest charged with carbone. The substances of the seed-lobes is hereby changed, an additional quantity of oxygene being introduced into their composition; and a part of their carbone lost. This change, in the proportion of their elementary principles, generates sugar, as is evident from the process of malting. But sugar and carbonic acid are more soluble in water, than the farinaceous oxyd. They therefore combine with the humidity in the capillary tubes of the seed, and find a ready passage to the germ, the vegetative principle of which they call into action by a *stimulus* suited to its nature. A nutritious liquor being thus prepared, by the decomposition of the seed-lobes, and distributed through the infant plant, its organs begin to exert their specific actions, by decomposing the nourishment conveyed to them, and forming new oxyds from the elementary principles of it, for the increase of the vessels and fibres; and in this manner the first state of vegetation commences.'

On these grounds, he thinks himself enabled to explain and understand many of the experiments of the industrious Italian philosopher Malpighi. Mr. G. having thus, as he supposed, found out the use of oxygen in the first stages of vegetation, began to inquire what would be the consequence of enclosing seeds in azote, after saturating them in water. The result of this attempt was, that not the least appearance of vegetation occurred, while the grain

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was in the jar with azotic gas, but on the admission of common air it sprouted freely. This, in our author's opinion, proves decisively, 'that seeds saturated with moisture have no affinity to azotic gas.' It also appears, he says, 'that the first stage of vegetation is analogous to combustion and respiration, all the three processes depending on oxydation by the atmosphere.' The paper is closed with a few remarks, that seem equally interesting to the agriculturist and philosopher.

P. 323.—'I. The only inference in this paper which seems to me doubtful, is, that seeds impregnated with water retain a part of the oxygene they absorb. To determine the matter with more certainty than I have done, the sixth experiment should be repeated over mercury.

'II. It is probable, that some hydrogen escapes from vegetating seed, combined with carbone; because the vessels used in the foregoing experiments retained a peculiar smell, even after being washed in clean water, but the action of the air destroyed it in a few hours.

'III. I have found, that steeped grain confined, for four or five days, in small quantities of common air, will sometimes vegetate, and not in other cases. This, perhaps, is owing to variations in the general temperature; for when the thermometer stands higher than 56°, it is probable, that the putrefactive fermentation commences sooner than when it is below that point. Lastly, the use, and even the necessity of having the soil very well pulverized, for the reception of a crop of grain or pulse, is explained by the preceding facts and observations: for when the turf of a field is reduced to a fine powder, the air finds free access to every part of it; and the seeds it contains, being placed in a temperature that is nearly uniform, and supplied with a necessary portion of humidity from the moist ground, are exposed in the most favourable manner, to the united effects of those causes, which are intended by nature to promote the growth and prosperity of the infant plant.'

Art. 6. *On Plica Polonica.* By Mr. Frederick Hoffman, Surgeon to the Prussian Army. Communicated by Dr. Ferriar.—The inquiries of Mr. H. on the subject of plica neither afford materials for a history of the disease, nor furnish us with any thing very satisfactory on the nature of the complaint, and means of cure.

Art. 7. *On the Combustion of dead Bodies, as formerly practised in Scotland.* By Mr. Alexander Copland.—In the first part of this volume, Mr. C. offered many circumstances on this curious subject; and in further support of his opinion, several additional facts are here brought forward, which the antiquary may probably find still more satisfactory. In answer to different objections, that have been made to Mr. C.'s conjectures, we have much judicious research and sound observation, though the matter is unquestionably involved, from its nature, in that kind of uncertainty, that may still afford room for the doubts and difficulties of antiquarians.

Art. 8. *Observations on the Advantages of planting Waste Lands.* By Thomas Richardson, Esq. Mr. R. here calls the attention of the proprietors of waste lands to the planting of trees according to the nature of the waste ground. The kinds of land are the following.

P. 347.—1. Boggy wet lands, which, from their situation and nature, cannot be drained without an expense far beyond any probable advantages to be derived from their cultivation.

‘ 11. Sterile hungry lands.

‘ 111. Barren rocky hills.’

These kinds of waste lands he considers as not worth sixpence an acre to the owners annually. On the first sort, he strongly advises the planting of the alder, as growing rapidly on such grounds, and being extremely useful for many other purposes beside dyeing. Different kinds of the willow, and of the poplar, are also recommended as extremely advantageous on such wastes. On the second sort of land, he thinks, much profit may be derived from the planting of scotch firs, and other trees of that kind. The facts which have been stated on this subject, Mr. R. says, prove, P. 365. ‘ that two of the most unpromising kinds of land, in which this kingdom abounds, and which have hitherto been deemed barren, may, by attention, be brought to be equally, if not more profitable, than lands of the best quality in the usual course of husbandry.’

The third sort of waste land may be planted with oaks, ashes, and other trees of the same kinds, to great advantage. The paper is closed with an observation of some weight, when considered in the view of planting. It is this, that out of twenty-six millions of acres, of which the kingdom consists, one eighth part, our author supposes, is destitute of any profit whatever, and yet capable of being improved, as he thinks he has shown:

P. 368.—‘ Allowing the annual growth of each acre to be no more than ten shillings on the average, the benefit to the country is upwards of one million five hundred thousand pounds each year, exclusive of the timber growing on the remaining twenty-three millions of acres. And, when we consider the large sums paid to foreign countries for timber, and its increasing scarcity in this, it will surely be worth the consideration of every true friend to his country, and every benevolent and patriotic mind, to reflect but a moment on the estimate thus moderately calculated. Let him then draw the conclusion in his own mind, what profits will accrue to every judicious planter of timber, and what advantages our posterity and our country may reap from such exertions.’

Art. 9. *The inverse Method of Central Forces.* Communicated by Edward Holme, M. D.—This is a very ingenious paper, but its nature prevents us from laying the demonstrations it comprehends before the reader.

Art. 10. *Conjectures on the Use of the ancient terraced Works, in the North of England.* By John Ferriar, M. D. In this paper, the doctor, with his usual acuteness and ingenuity, forms many interesting conjectures on these ancient earth works. That these terraces were designed for military uses, there can be little doubt; the great difficulty in regard to them is in what age, and with what particular view, they were formed. Dr. F. confesses himself to have been once of opinion, that these works were constructed to oppose the progress of the danes, but a late visit to Orton Scarr seems to have led him to suppose them of an earlier origin. After giving a good description of them, he observes, that it is probable, from the
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the imperfect account of Tacitus, that Agricola was the first roman commander who proceeded into that part of the country, where these antiquities are situate; and he further correctly remarks, that the generality of our antiquarians have imagined, that Agricola in his first campaign entered Yorkshire by the pass of *Iforium* or Alborough.

P. 427.—But, says the doctor, 'the first operation of that general was to recover the isle of Mona or Anglesey, immediately before his troops went into winter-quarters, and it is probable from the expressions of Tacitus, that in the following spring he proceeded northwards, along the coasts of Cheshire and Lancashire: "*loca castris ipse capere, æstuaria ac sylvas ipse prætentare - - - nulla ante Britannia nova pars illacessita transierit.*" The word æstuarium, can only refer to the inlets of the western coast: the æstuaries of the Mersey and Ribble, and the bay of Morecamb, the *Moricambe Æstuarium* of the romans. Mr. Whitaker, in his learned history of Manchester, has therefore conjectured, with great probability, that in 79, after overcoming the Cornavii, Agricola invaded Lancashire. The appearances I have described, induce me to add to his conjecture, that the campaign was probably closed by an invasion of Westmoreland and Cumberland, and that in its course, Orton Scarr was attacked and taken. The strong country, with which the pass of Brederdale communicates, might have been the refuge of part of the brigantes, who had escaped from the attack made by Cerealis on the low country. From the number of british and roman remains in this neighbourhood, it plainly appears that the hilly country was formerly well peopled, and considered as an important district. No part of it was neglected. Even the dreary pass of Borrodale received a roman garrison. And while the religious horror of the adjoining mountains, favoured the mysterious impostures of the druids, the beauty and convenience, of the vales and lakes, must have early attracted numerous inhabitants. The changes in the seat of population, in this island, have been so great, that in judging of the importance or remoteness of any northern part of the country, in former times, we may almost venture to reverse its present condition. To this retreat, some of the britons might bring an imperfect knowledge of the roman art of war, and the invention of terraced ramparts might then be substituted for the walls of loose stones; which the first defenders of this country opposed to the efforts of the legions. Whether Agricola, after subduing the *sistuntii* of Lancashire, sailed up the bay of Morecamb, or whether he proceeded along the coast, fixing a station at Lancaster, I shall not undertake to enquire. It is certain, that in the route from the bay of Morecamb to Kendal, various traces of ancient entrenchments are visible; but Dr. Stukeley, by a stroke of his lively pen, has turned those scarce discernible mounds into splendid cities. Apart from this fancy of multiplying Palmyras in the desert, Dr. Stukeley was a most acute antiquarian, and an excellent judge of field-works in particular. It is therefore dangerous to question his authority, on this point.'

From these premises the author is led to form other conjectures concerning these works, which do not appear in the least improbable.

Art. 11. *Miscellaneous Observations on Canine and Spontaneous Hydrophobia: to which is prefixed, the History of a Case of Hydrophobia, occurring twelve Years after the Bite of a supposed Mad Dog.* By Samuel Argent Bardsley, M. D. M. R. M. S. Edin. and C. M. S. London.—This paper contains a large portion of useful and interesting matter, on the subject of *rabies canina*. The history of the case is drawn up with judgment, and is highly curious in respect to fact. The examination of the body after death exhibited some appearances of importance, though it does not seem to have been made with that freedom and deliberation, that is necessary for a full inquiry.

P. 444.—‘In the cavity of the thorax,’ says Dr. B., ‘no unusual appearances were discovered; except, that the surface of the lungs appeared of a darker hue, and more distended with blood than usual. No inflammation appeared on an inspection of the fauces; nor were the muscles of the larynx or pharynx in the least discoloured. The stomach and œsophagus were removed from the body, and subjected to particular inspection. A longitudinal incision was made through the whole cavity of the œsophagus, but not the least marks of disease were discovered. Upon opening the stomach, evident traces of inflammation were observed. It commenced at the superior orifice, and was there confined to small and irregular spots of a dark red colour; and might also be traced in a linear form, and of a brighter red, along the curvature of the stomach, terminating at the pylorus in large and irregular spots of a gangrenous appearance. The contents of the stomach did not exceed three ounces; and consisted chiefly, of the medicines that had been swallowed, mixed with a dark coloured fluid. All the other viscera of the abdomen exhibited no marks of disease.’

This singular case has led Dr. B. to extend his observations to considerable length, and to collect a great variety of facts from authors, from the whole of which he concludes,

P. 472.—I. That the poison of a rabid animal may lay [lie] dormant in some instances for the period of twelve, and even twenty months; yet that the cases related by various authors, where canine madness is said to have occurred at the distance of *seven, twenty, and forty years*, from the communication of the poison, may be justly considered as either instances of spontaneous hydrophobia, or of such diseases as occasionally exhibit the anomalous symptoms—of an inability to swallow fluids, and an aversion at the sight of them:—the poison of a mad animal has had no share in their production. II. That the mere application of the saliva of a rabid animal to the skin, especially to those parts where its structure is of a thin and delicate texture; such as the lips, tongue, &c. has produced the disease of canine madness; but that the inspiration of the breath of a mad animal by any person, has ever produced this complaint appears highly improbable, and is not supported by positive facts. III. That local irritation from wounds in irritable habits, especially when conjoined with a perturbed state of the passions; and, also violent affections of the mind, independent of corporeal injury, in hysterical and hypochondriacal constitutions, have produced all the pathognomonic symptoms of canine madness; and finally, that violent alternations of heat and cold, and all other causes, which induce
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great debility, and at the same time increase the irritability of the system, have at times proved adequate to the production of symptoms exactly corresponding with those of rabies canina.'

The accuracy and propriety of these inferences are enforced by many judicious observations. On a full review of all the facts and circumstances contained in his paper, Dr. B. seems inclined to believe, that this fatal case was a genuine instance of spontaneous hydrophobia. This opinion is strengthened by several circumstances of the history of the unfortunate patient. In the conclusion, some useful hints for improving the treatment in this disease are thrown out.

Art. 12. *Farther Experiments and Observations on the Vegetation of Seeds.* By Mr. John Gough. Communicated by Dr. Holme.—In this memoir, Mr. G. attempts to show by experiment, that the vegetative principle in seeds is destroyed by the putrefactive fermentation; and that the commencement of this process depends on the changes in question being accelerated or retarded, as the temperature increases or diminishes. These circumstances were hinted at in his former paper. Out of the many ingenious and important conclusions drawn in this essay, we shall select one or two, which will show the philosophical way in which the subject is treated.

From several experiments the author finds, p. 493, 'that the putrefactive fermentation destroys the vegetative power of seeds surrounded by *azote* or covered by water: consequently the presence of *oxygene* is necessary for preventing this destructive process; which it does by producing another, that may be called the *vegetative* fermentation.

'The reason why one of the two kinds of fermentation in question always takes place, in seeds prepared by soaking, seems to be this: the water, thus introduced into their composition, changes that proportion of their component parts, which is required to preserve them in a sound state. If they be then exposed to the atmosphere, the action of its *oxygene* awakes the faculty of vegetation in them. On the contrary, when they are surrounded by *azote* or water, which do not appear to act on them, the component particles in their texture are left to form new combinations among themselves, and are partly converted into *gas*; the appearance of which indicates the commencement of that stage of putrefaction, by which the faculty of vegetating in the atmosphere is destroyed.'

On these grounds Mr. G. thinks we may explain the curious circumstance of seeds remaining so long sound and uninjured in land that is not broken up. Another curious conclusion is, p. 500, 'that seeds which have been permitted to grow for a time in the atmosphere, cease to do so when they are surrounded with *azote*: whence it may be safely inferred, that a germ in the act of vegetation requires to be continually excited by the stimulus of *oxygene*. But as soon as the seed lobes are exhausted, the young plant is in a state to derive its nutrition from the ground; and then (and not till then) it finds itself in a situation capable of making future advances, unassisted by the stimulus of respirable air.

'The infant sprout at first suffers only a suspension of its energy from the absence of pure air; but if this necessary support be withheld

held too long, it perishes by the putrefactive fermentation: for if seeds be taken out of the *azote* in which they are confined, at the end of two or three days, they begin to vegetate afresh with unimpaired vigour; but if their stay in the gas be protracted three or four days longer, when the weather is moderately warm, they lose their natural colour, and putrify.'

The memoir contains many other results of experimental trials, equally interesting and singular. The effects of light on vegetables deserve notice, though some of them have been long known.

Art. 13. *An Attempt to explain the Nature and Origin of the ancient carved Pillars and Obelisks, now extant in Great Britain.* By Mr. Thomas Barritt.—The author of this memoir endeavours to show, that many stone monuments in this country have been referred by antiquarians to a period too remote.

P. 506.—'Some rude masses,' says he, 'of stone are, indeed, to be seen, particularly on the coasts of Scotland, which were probably erected immediately after battles with the danes and norwegians; but I am inclined to believe that all the figured pillars and obelisks, which have been supposed monuments of similar events, were crosses, either erected on conspicuous places to excite devotion, or raised over the burying places of noble families, or designed to commemorate military transactions, of a much later period.'

After hinting at the difficulties of the subject, and showing in what way they may at least, in some degree, be overcome; Mr. B. makes many pertinent remarks on the opinions of those who have ventured on the same track of inquiry before him, and throws out some conjectures respecting these crosses and pillars, which seem to us to have much probability. The pillars in the church-yard at Penrith in Cumberland are minutely described, and compared with some others, after which, the author thus concludes.

P. 514.—'These concurring circumstances incline me to believe, that the Penrith pillars, with that at Nithsdale, are about the date of the fourteenth century; and, from similarity in the style of execution, there is great probability of their having been executed by the same hand, and perhaps very near the same time with the repairing of Carlisle cathedral.'

Some judicious observations are also made on the scottish pillars described by Pennant in his Tour, and on the suggestions of that author respecting them.

Ibid.—'Although the above are decorated, besides the cross, with men, horses, dogs, and grotesque animals, which are supposed to allude to the above, or to some other material circumstance relative to scottish history, I cannot at present be brought to believe any of them to have been erected at the time when any norwegian, danish, or icelandish invasion took place in Scotland: the workmanship bespeaks the execution of a later period. The knots, foliage, and grotesque imagery, in a great degree, correspond with the embellishments of the Penrith and Nithsdale pillars; and I judge them to be nearly of the same date, of the fourteenth century. When this style was first introduced, I cannot say with certainty; but I have frequently seen it exhibited in old houses, the screens of burying chapels in churches, and ornaments in books of so low a date as the sixteenth century.'

Art. 14. *Meteorological Observations collected and arranged by Thomas Garnett, M. D. Physician at Harrogate, Member of the Royal Medical, Royal Physical, and Natural History, Societies of Edinburgh; of the Literary and Philosophical Society of Manchester; of the Medical Society of London; of the Royal Irish Academy, &c. Communicated by Dr. Percival.*—This very extensive set of meteorological observations is introduced by some sensible reflections on the utility and importance of the subject, and some judicious hints for future improvements. In order that the observations contained in the present memoir might be more conveniently compared, the author has divided them into different sections.

P. 520.—‘The first contains the different observations which have been made on the barometer. The second contains observations and remarks on the thermometer. In the third is an account of the quantity of rain which has fallen in different parts of the kingdom, with some remarks on the imperfections of rain gages, and the methods of remedying them. The fourth section contains an account of the different observations made on the winds. To these I have added, by way of appendix, the remarks of several correspondents, which could not properly be referred to any of the preceding divisions.’

Many observations of considerable utility, both in respect to the instruments and the nature of the subject, are occasionally introduced into the memoir; and the appendix, which is subjoined to it, contains some sensible remarks.

A. R.

ART. VI. *Transactions of the Society instituted at London, for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce; with the Premiums offered in the Year 1797. Vol. xv. 8vo. 368 pages. 6 plates. Price 5s. in boards. Robson. 1797.*

WE have had frequent opportunities to compliment the laudable spirit, with which the business of this society is transacted. The funds which support it appear to be in a very flourishing condition, and justice requires an acknowledgement, that premiums for improvements in agriculture, manufactures, chemistry, mechanics, the polite arts, and every thing, indeed, eminent either for utility or ornament, have been distributed with considerable judgment, and with the greatest liberality. We are particularly pleased with one of the ‘general conditions,’ which the society establishes respecting the distribution of its premiums, namely, ‘that no person shall receive any premium, bounty, or encouragement from the society, for any matter for which he has obtained or proposes to obtain a patent.’ ‘That every man is honourably entitled to the enjoyment, and for a certain time to the exclusive enjoyment, of profits produced by his own ingenuity, is not to be disputed; at the same time it must be acknowledged, that, during the term of an exclusive patent, the usefulness to society of the particular invention, for which it is granted, is considerably counteracted by the expense of purchase. Should the honours and rewards, therefore, which are bestowed on works of genius and utility, by this very respectable institution, in any degree tend to diminish the daily increasing number of patents, it cannot but be considered as a public benefit of no mean importance.

At the last session of the society, several new objects of reward were

were selected; a premium is now offered for the discovery of some method to harvest corn without injury, in wet weather: the last sickle and unfavourable harvest-season has rendered this an object of very pressing importance. The preparation of english opium; the prevention of injuries to passengers in carriages, from horses taking fright; any effectual plan for guarding against the occasional explosion of gun-powder-mills; these, and many other important desiderata, the society has taken into consideration, and endeavoured to supply, by stimulating ingenuity with the hope of honour and reward.

According to the plan we have hitherto adopted, we now proceed to state, in a brief manner, the particulars which the present volume contains.

AGRICULTURE. The gold medal was adjudged to John Christian Curwen, esq., for having planted with acorns about 200 acres of mountain-ground, bordering on the lake of Windermere: the expence of planting, although the acorns were brought from South Wales, did not exceed twenty shillings an acre: the quantity of acorns used was about 500 bushels, and for the sake of experiment, about fifty thousand oaks were planted among them: the whole plantation is remarkably thrifty. Mr. Samuel Kilderbee, of Ipswich, received the silver medal for having dibbled or set several acres of ground with acorns. It seems that about two bushels and a quarter were dibbled in each acre, the produce of which, on the average, was three hundred plants. Mr. K. has communicated some remarks on the transplantation of oaks: in a former paper he had stated the probability of injuring the tap-root, as an objection to transplantation; this root shoots downward like a carrot, but a high wind in the year 1795, which blew down some hundred oaks, gave Mr. K. an opportunity of remarking, that the tap-root either dies in the space of a few years, or changes it's perpendicular to a horizontal direction; that objection therefore ceases. Mr. Lewis Majendie received a gold medal for having planted, in a field of seven acres and nine poles, 19,000 ash-trees: they were planted at four years old, in rows, at intervals of four feet, in the quincunx order. A gold medal was adjudged to lord Brownlow for having planted about twenty-two acres with different sorts of osiers: each acre contained about 1200 plants. The thanks of the society were voted to the earl of Fife for remarks on the management of a mixed plantation. His lordship justly observes, that much injury is very often done by pruning trees to make room for others, instead of cutting them down. The rev. James Filewood received the gold medal for having gained from the sea fifty-six acres of land, by means of an embankment, the construction of which is minutely stated: the work was done by eighteen men in about six months, and cost 65ol., to which must be added 3ol. as the expence of draining.

The rev. James Stillingfleet, and Mr. Thomas Jones, of London, had each adjudged to him the gold medal, for the cultivation of rheum palmatum. Mr. S. observes, that a root of five years old weighs about 20lb. and that if a tea-spoonful of magnesia alba be added to a dose of twenty or twenty-five grains, it's effect will be sufficiently powerful: both gentlemen agree, that the rheum palmatum will not flourish, unless it is so planted, that all unnecessary moisture be suffered to escape. The gold medal was voted to Mr. Billingsley, for his improvement of waste-land in the forest of Mendip: a very minute
account

account is given of the expenses attending the first purchase, enclosing, cultivating, manuring, and furnishing with necessary buildings, 124 acres: the sum total was 1669l. 17s. 5d. Mr. B. says, that he can now let this enclosure for 150l. a year, or at twenty-five shillings per acre, nearly: at twenty-five years purchase, the value in fee therefore is 3750l., which is reduced to 3500l. by deducting 250l. for the expense of building a dwelling-house and appendages.

from this sum	£3500	0	0
subtract the expenses	1669	17	5

and the clear profit which remains, is 2830 2 7

Were a few such important facts as these well ascertained and generally known, the eye of a traveller in England would not long be wearied with a barren uncultivated heath of forty or fifty miles in extent! Such is too frequently the case at present. The gold medal was also adjudged to William Oakeley, esq., for having improved a considerable quantity of waste moor land in Merionethshire; the rapid floods, by which it used frequently to be inundated, are now completely drawn off by drains, and some of the *inferior* land is now actually let for two guineas an acre. Several other gentlemen have received premiums for draining, but as the form and delineation of the drain must necessarily vary in different lands, any further particulars on our part would be useless. We cannot conclude the article *agriculture*, however, without noticing, that Mr. Adam Scott, the ingenious steward of Mr. Weston, of Sutton Place, has received from the society a premium of thirty guineas, for the invention of what he calls a *mole-plough*; from twenty to thirty acres a day may be drained by a man and a boy with this instrument: the mole plough is extremely simple, yet so constructed that the depth of the drains may be varied from twelve to eighteen inches. It is objected against this instrument, that it requires great strength of cattle to draw it: surely this might be obviated, if instead of being set at eighteen inches for example, it was at first only set at nine, and the plough drawn back in the same drain, with the *mole* dropt to eighteen inches for the return.

CHEMISTRY. The only communication under this head is from Mrs. Jane Gibbs, of Portland, to whom the society presented thirty guineas for having procured starch from materials not used as food for man. The *arum maculatum* is a plant which grows in woods and other shady places, and is commonly known by the name of 'lords and ladies,' or 'wake robin.' Having cleansed the roots of this plant, and pounded them in a stone mortar, mixed with water, Mrs. Gibbs suffered the whole to settle, and poured off the water; the starch remained at the bottom, and when dried became a fine powder; a peck of roots will produce about four pounds. We can add, from our own knowledge, that this starch has been commonly manufactured in Portland for many years, probably some centuries; and considerable quantities were formerly sold in the neighbourhood of the island, where it was known by the name of *moor starch* [root-starch]. It was particularly prized for the property of becoming fit for use by being mixed with boiling water simply.

POLITE ARTS. We are sorry to be prevented, by the limits of our review, from giving an account of a very ingenious process, discovered by Mr. Robert Salmon, of Woburn, for transferring paintings, without the slightest injury to them, from one substance to another;

another: Mr. S. has stated, in a remarkably clear and intelligible manner, the method, which he has adopted with success, of transferring old paintings from ciellings, wainscots and walls, to canvass. In the processes which have been published for the restoration of decayed paintings, in the Gentleman's Magazine for the year 1753, and in the appendix to the second volume of the Handmaid to the Arts, printed in 1764, *aqua fortis*, and other materials, are recommended, from which much injury is likely to result: nothing of this sort enters into the plan of Mr. S. and the society has very properly presented him with the greater silver pallet for his ingenuity.

MECHANICS. Our readers are aware, that it is impossible to give an intelligible account of intricate mechanical inventions, without the assistance of plates: in the volume before us are five very neat ones; the first representing an improved packing press: it is made double, so that after the lower package has been sufficiently pressed, when the bed is raised, another package being placed on it, the upper is pressed as the lower is relieved. Mr. John Peek received from the society thirty guineas for his invention. The same sum was voted to Mr. Edmund Bunting for an improvement on the calendar mill, of which an engraving and description are given. Mr. Joseph Ridley received twenty guineas for a substitute for a crank for communicating motion to a foot lathe.

P. 272. 'The difference between the method now recommended, and the common crank, as usually employed for this purpose, is, first, that in order to obtain a proper motion of the crank with full power, it must be placed in one point of its revolution, which requires time and dexterity; whereas the mode now before us, is at all times ready for the stroke, and the revolution immediately takes place on putting the foot on the treadle.

'Secondly, in the common cranks, the power acts only in a small part of the revolution, and the full power is only exerted at one point; whereas, by the means now proposed, the power is constantly exerted at that point where it can act to the greatest effect; and this will prove particularly useful in the finer and more curious kind of work, where the crank cannot be made to go slow enough.'

An engraving of this substitute is annexed, as also of a portable machine for loading and unloading goods, invented by Mr. George Davis, of Windsor, Berks, to whom the society adjudged a premium of forty guineas: it is capable of loading a ton weight by one man only, and so portable as not to exceed one hundred and twelve pounds in weight. The last article is the engraving of a machine for cutting chaff, invented by Mr. Salmon, for which he was adjudged a premium of thirty guineas: among others, the following advantages result from the mechanism of this machine.

P. 284. 'Its cutting various lengths—resting during the cut—the knives being adjusted to their work by regulating springs—the feeding being readily thrown off—and the pressure moveable to either side.

'It is also well calculated to be applied to any power which may be occasionally fixed to the opposite side to that on which it is turned by hand; and, by the additional box, when used by hand, the workman will be enabled to cut for some continuance, without stopping to feed.'

The remaining part of this volume is taken up, as usual, with a list of rewards, catalogue of subscribers, and a general index. E. D.

ART.

PHILOSOPHY.

ART. VII. *The Enquirer*, &c. By William Godwin.
[Continued from Vol XXV, p. 204.]

SCARCELY any thing impresses us more favorably concerning a man, than his unsolicited acknowledgement of error, either in practice or speculation: a general and vague declaration, indeed, of openness to conviction, and so on, is the most common and unmeaning thing imaginable; obstinacy itself is ashamed to *appear* obstinate; but an avowal of explicit error is somewhat rare, and is the undeceiving index of an ingenuous mind. In the second edition of Mr. G.'s '*Political Justice*' were omitted or modified several of the extravagancies which appeared in the first, and the preface to the present performance affords additional and abundant evidence, that the author is not to be accused of an unreasonable tenacity in his opinions; several of them, indeed, are of so eccentric a nature, that such tenacity would argue a very uncommon share of self-conceit, and of disrespect to the opinion of many a sagacious and unprejudiced observer.

The first part of the *Enquirer* relates chiefly to the subject of education; the latter, which comes under our present consideration, though somewhat more miscellaneous, treats (with the exception of the twelfth essay, on english style) of questions connected with political economy and morals.

'Riches,' and their correlative 'poverty,' form the subject of the first essay. It is contended, in contradiction to the decision 'of what may be styled an intemperate spirit of philosophy,' that poverty is an enormous evil. We feel no inclination to dispute the proposition: but how is this 'enormous evil' to be remedied? We have no instance upon record of an equality in point of property, which equality, by the by, would be tantamount to its annihilation, so far as domestic commerce was concerned, among the members of any civilized society; and every refinement of society, according to the common acceptation of the term, has a direct tendency to increase the inequality between the loftiest and the lowest members; rather, we are disposed to believe, by exalting the former than depressing the latter, for no set of people can possibly be *more* ignorant and brutal, than the boors of a half-civilized country. From the connection, therefore, between civil society and the division of its members into rich and poor, lazy and laborious, having hitherto remained from the remotest ages undissolved, we may almost regard this connection, however to be lamented, as indissoluble, and perhaps necessary to its existence. The alternative is obvious.

Essay the second. 'Of avarice and profusion.' If the preface of Mr. G. had not prepared us for some dissonance among his positions, we should have been surprised at the inconsistency of two neighbour assertions; one, in support of the opinion that poverty is an enormous evil, states the mistake of those persons, 'who affirm, that the wants which are of the first necessity are inconsiderable, and are easily supplied. No,' says Mr. G.; 'that is not inconsiderable, which cannot be purchased but by the sacrifice of the best part of my time, and the first fruit of my labours;' (p. 166.) and the other, to facilitate the reception of a favourite measure, namely, the equal division of labour, directly contradicts it: 'the commodities that substantially contribute

to the subsistence of the human species, form a very short catalogue; they demand from us but a slender portion of industry' (p. 174.). We suspect, moreover, that our author is somewhat incorrect in other parts of his reasoning on avarice and profusion; we fully acquit Mr. G. of the slightest intention to delude, but the inaccuracies of so fascinating a writer should not be concealed. In trying the question, which character deserves the preference, the man of avaricious habits, or he who spends his income with spirit and liberality, Mr. G. decides in favour of the former. 'Every man,' says he, 'who invents a new luxury, adds so much to the quantity of labour entailed on the lower orders of society;' on this principle, it is contended, that, if a rich man employ the poor in breaking up land, and cultivating its useful productions, he may be their benefactor; yet, 'if he employ them in erecting palaces, in sinking canals, in laying out his parks, and modelling his pleasure-grounds, he will be found, when rightly considered, their enemy.' (p. 178.) The invention of a new luxury is not to be regarded as an *addition* to the quantity of labour, but rather as the *exchange* of one species of labour for another; or is it true, 'that the poor are paid no more now for the work of ten hours, than before for the work of eight.' Mr. G. would find it difficult to prove, that the hours of diurnal labour among the artizans and peasants of this kingdom, have at all increased within the last hundred years, and a very little knowledge of the subsisting relation between the labourer and his master, would have informed him, that wages are *generally* proportionate to the quantity of work done. Mr. G. has overlooked a circumstance in his estimate of the avaricious and profuse character, which, even on his own principles, should detract from the superiour utility which he ascribes so decidedly to the former; this circumstance is, that it is the nature of avarice to generate profusion; the massy coffers of the miser descend to his heir, and the *salutary* penuriousness of the father, is counterbalanced by the riot, the debauchery, and extravagance of the son.

The third essay treats 'on beggars.' Here we find much to admire; Mr. Godwin's observations on the duty of relieving beggars evidently flow from a feeling and compassionate heart.

The fourth and fifth essays, the former on 'servants,' and the latter 'on trades and professions,' though certainly not destitute of some just reflections, are in our estimation extremely exceptionable. It is impossible, surely, to read the following passages, without disgust at the wanton and extravagant misrepresentation of the general state of servants, and their relative situation with their respective masters.

P. 207. 'This monstrous association and union of wealth and poverty together, is one of the most astonishing exhibitions that the human imagination can figure to itself. It is voluntary, however, at least on the part of the master. If it were compulsorily imposed upon him, there is no cheerfulness and gaiety of mind, that could stand up against the melancholy scene. It would be a revival of the barbarity of Mezentius, the linking a living body and a dead one together. It would cure the most obdurate heart of its partiality for the distinction of ranks in society. But, as it is, and as the human mind is constituted, there is nothing, however monstrous, however intolerable to sober and impartial reason, to which custom does not render us callous.'

• There

There is one other circumstance, the object of the senses, characteristic of this distinction of classes in the same house, which, though inferior to the preceding, deserves to be mentioned. I amuse myself, suppose, with viewing the mansion of a man of rank. I admire the splendour of the apartments, and the costliness of their decorations. I pass from room to room, and find them all spacious, lofty and magnificent. From their appearance my mind catches a sensation of tranquil grandeur. They are so carefully polished, so airy, so perfectly light, that I feel as if it were impossible to be melancholy in them. I am even fatigued with their variety.

I will imagine that, after having surveyed the rest of the house, the fancy strikes me of viewing the servants' offices. I descend by a narrow staircase. I creep cautiously along dark passages. I pass from room to room, but every where is gloom. The light of day never fully enters the apartments. The breath of heaven cannot freely play among them. There is something in the very air that feels musty and stagnant to my sense. The furniture is frugal, unexceptionable perhaps in itself, but strangely contrasted with the splendour of the rest of the house. If I enter the apartment which each servant considers as his own, or, it may be, is compelled to share with another, I perceive a general air of slovenliness and negligence, that amply represents to me the depression and humiliated state of mind of its tenant.

I escape from this place, as I would escape from the spectacle of a jail. I cannot return again to the splendid apartments I have left. Their furniture has lost its beauty, and the pictures their charms. I plunge in the depth of groves and the bosom of nature, and weep over the madness of artificial society.

Yet, notwithstanding these things, the rich pretend to wonder at the depravity and vices of their servants. They are astonished that they should enter into a confederacy of robbers, and strip the houses of their masters, even at the risk of the gallows.

Servants have only the choice of an alternative. They must either cherish a burning envy in their bosoms, an inextinguishable abhorrence against the injustice of society; or, guided by the hopelessness of their condition, they must blunt every finer feeling of the mind, and sit down in their obscure retreat, having for the constant habits of their reflections, slavery and contentment. They can scarcely expect to emerge from their depression. They must look to spend the best years of their existence in a miserable dependence. It is incompatible with their ignorance, that they should be able to look down upon these misfortunes with philosophical tranquillity.

If features be an index of the mind, we are authorized to contend, in opposition to this piteous tale, that a more comfortable class of people does not exist among us than domestic servants: their countenance is suffused with a serenity and cheerfulness, to which the master of them is frequently a stranger; so far as our observation has extended, their food is usually plentiful, their clothing good, and their labour light. On the score of intellectual acquirement, they rise but little, indeed, above the labourers of the day; but their leisure for improvement is past comparison greater: and as to dependence, they are precisely on a par with the shoemaker and the taylor, whose *miserable* and *degraded* situation is deeply commiserated in the next essay, which

treats 'of trades and professions.' 'To what calling or profession shall the future life of my child be devoted?—Alas! I survey them all; I cause each successively to pass in review before me: but my mind can rest upon none: *there is not one that a virtuous mind can regard with complacency, or select with any genuine eagerness of choice!*' After such a reflection, well may Mr. G. exclaim, in a tone of querulous ingratitude, 'What sort of a scene then is that in the midst of which we live; where all is blank, repulsive, odious; where every business and employment is found contagious and fatal to all the best characteristics of man, and proves the fruitful parent of a thousand hateful vices?' (p. 213.) Timon's observation then is good, and his curse most equitable:

"All is oblique;
There's nothing level in our cursed natures,
But direct villainy. Therefore be abhorr'd
All feasts, societies, and throngs of men!"

Let us hear the genuine character of a tradesman.

R. 218. 'There is one thing that stands out grossly to the eye, and respecting which there can be no dispute: I mean the servile and contemptible arts which we so frequently see played off by the tradesman. He is so much in the habit of exhibiting a bended body, that he scarcely knows how to stand upright. Every word he utters is graced with a simper or a smile. He exhibits all the arts of the male coquette; not that he wishes his fair visitor to fall in love with his person, but that he may induce her to take off his goods. An American savage, who should witness the spectacle of a genteel and well frequented shop, would conceive its master to be the kindest creature in the world, overflowing with affection to all, and eager to contribute to every one's accommodation and happiness. Alas, it is no such thing! There is not a being on the face of the earth, with a heart more thoroughly purged from every remnant of the weakness of benevolence and sympathy. The sole principle of all this fair outside, is the consideration how to make the most of every one that enters his shop.

'Yet this being, this supple, fawning, cringing creature, this systematic, cold-hearted liar, this being, every moment of whose existence is centred in the sordid consideration of petty gains, has the audacity to call himself a man. One half of all the human beings we meet, belong, in a higher or lower degree, to the class here delineated. In how perverted a state of society have we been destined to exist?

'Nothing is more striking than the eagerness with which tradesmen endeavour to supplant each other. The hatred of courtiers, the jealousy of artists, the rivalry of lovers attached to a common mistress, scarcely go beyond the fierceness of their passions. The bitterness of their hatred, the impatience with which they think and speak of each other, the innumerable arts by which they undermine a brother, constitute a memorable spectacle. There is nothing in which they so much rejoice, as in the ruin of an antagonist. They will sell their goods at a loss, and sometimes ruin themselves, in the attempt to accomplish this wished-for event.

'And for what is all this mighty contention, this unintermitted and unrelenting war? For the most poisonous and soul-corrupting object,

object, that can possibly engross a man's persevering attention! For gain.'

Is it possible, that Mr. G. can really entertain so vile and contemptible an opinion of 'one half of all the human beings he meets!' If so,

—— "Let Timon to the woods; where he shall find
The unkindest beast more kinder than mankind."

But this is not all: the professions are treated with equal contumely. Far be it from us to join in so general and indiscriminate a censure. With what a malignant eye must Mr. G. survey his physician! 'pain, sickness, and anguish are his harvest. He rejoices to hear, that they have fallen upon any of his acquaintance. He looks blank and disconsolate, when all men are at their ease.' Impossible! we really know not how to credit, that any one can hold in such thorough abhorrence a class of men, distinguished for learning and abilities; whose meat and whose drink it literally is, to go about doing good. The severity of our author's strictures on the legal and clerical professors is less exceptionable; and in some measure to be justified, from the circumstance of their voluntary servitude to a system, which many of the most enlightened scoff at and despise. The same may be said of the soldier and the sailor: Mr. G.'s observations on these two professions are perfectly correct, and did the limits of our Review allow it, we should have great pleasure in extracting them.

On the subject of 'self denial,' (essay six) we find a great deal of sound, good sense: how far the pleasures of sense are to be cultivated, and wherein the gratification of them becomes inconsistent with intellectual enjoyments, or endangers the relish for them, are clearly pointed out, and elegantly illustrated. The compatibility of sensible and intellectual pleasures is argued from the dependance of the latter upon the existence of the former; from our animal sensations is derived a large portion of the materials of our knowledge.

P. 246. 'Add to this, that all our refined and abstracted notions are compounded from ideas of sense. There is nothing so elevated and pure, but it was indebted to this source for its materials. He therefore who would obtain vividness in his ideas of intellect, ought probably to maintain with care the freshness and vigor of his ideas of sense.'

'It seems to be owing to this that we find, for the most part, the rustic, slow of apprehension, and unsusceptible of discernment; while it is only from the man who maintains, not only the health of his body, but the delicacy and vividness of his corporeal tact, that we ordinarily expect delicacy of taste, brilliancy of imagination, or profoundness of intellectual discussion.'

In this essay Mr. G.'s scepticism is evinced, not to say his disbelief of a future state, (see page 243): we pass it over—not with the sneer of anger or contempt; far from it; belief is not a matter of choice: it is in no man's power, by the utmost exercise of his volition, to make any proposition appear more or less probable to him, than in his mind is sanctioned by its evidence: as well may he by volition determine, that the colour of blue shall appear green to his eyes. We pass it over in silence and in sorrow.

The seventh essay treats of 'personal reputation,' and is divided into three sections: the first considers, at some length, the nature and

and operation of what is called 'common honesty:' that implicit and undeviating deference to the ordinary standard of morality, which is so specious and satisfactory to vulgar understandings. Benevolence, or any of the fine feelings of the soul, enters not as a necessary ingredient into the composition of this worldly virtue: 'what the majority of mankind has determined to be essential to a moral character, it submits to with the most edifying resignation; those things which a severe and inflexible examination might pronounce to be dishonest, but which the world has agreed to tolerate, it can practise in all instances without the visitings of compunction:' its characteristics are coldness and mediocrity. In the second section are enumerated those circumstances, by some or other of which men of more than ordinary endowments forfeit, among the mass of mankind, their character even for the lowest degree of morality. The first and most striking circumstance is that deviation from popular opinion, of which every one, who is in the habit of thinking for himself, is occasionally guilty; 'this is an obvious disqualification in a candidate for common fame;' various eccentricities in sentiment and conduct, peculiar to men of uncommon endowments, meet with little or no mercy from ordinary and feeble characters, who walk in the beaten track, with a steady, but a stupid pace. The case of insolvent debtors is touched upon with great humanity and feeling; the justice of the following observation, however, is extremely questionable: 'one of the wretched consequences of a state of debt is, that the debtor is not permitted to make an election among his creditors; and that, at the penalty of the loss of liberty and capacity for future exertions, he is compelled to grant to unjust and unmanly importunity, what he is by the same means compelled to deny to merit.' We are inclined to think, that an election on the part of an insolvent debtor, respecting the payment of his creditors, would be attended with the most pernicious consequences; the former would generally be bribed or terrified into a partial and unjust disposal of his effects; for the most powerful and rapacious creditors would make the loudest and most effectual demands. The third section considers, first the value of reputation, as an instrument of personal happiness, and as an ally whose office it is to render efficacious our services to others; and secondly, what species of reputation is best calculated to answer these two purposes. Much ingenious argument is displayed throughout the whole of this essay.

Essay the eighth. As an adjunct to the preceding essay on personal reputation, in the present is treated the subject of 'posthumous fame.' Many a one, disappointed in the plaudits of mankind, consoles himself in the disappointment, by a prospect of celebrity in future ages. In respect to literary reputation, the delusive nature of this prospect is exemplified by numerous philosophers, natural historians, poets, and fine writers, whose eminence is the subject of never-ending contention: and a similar illustration is employed to show of how evanescent a nature is even moral reputation.

p. 289.—'A few years before the commencement of the christian era, Cicero and Cæsar entered into a paper war respecting the real worth of the character of Cato. Is this controversy yet decided? Do there not still exist, on the one hand, men who look upon Cato with all the enthusiastic veneration expressed by Cicero; and, on the other, men who, like Cæsar, treat him as a hypocritical snarler, and affirm that he

was only indulging his pride and ill-humour, when he pretended to be indulging his love of virtue?

‘Perhaps there never was a man who loved fame so much as Cicero himself. When he found himself ill-treated by the asperity of Cato and the impatience of Brutus, when he was assailed with a torrent of abuse by the partisans of Anthony, he also comforted himself that this was a transitory injustice. While he stretched out his neck to the sword of the assassin, he said within himself, In a little time the purity of my motives will be universally understood. Ignorant, misjudging man! Do we not hear at this hour the character of this illustrious ornament of the human race, defamed by every upstart school boy? When is there a day that passes over our heads, without a repetition of the tale of his vain-gloriousness, his cowardice, the imbecility of his temper, and the hollowness of his patriotism?’

There are few essays wherein we find more to admire than that which treats ‘of difference in opinion,’ (Essay ix); it abounds in sagacious and salutary reflection, and breathes the purest spirit of liberality: ‘one of the best practical rules of morality, that ever was delivered,’ says our author, ‘is that of putting ourselves in the place of another, before we act or decide any thing respecting him.’ This admirable essay must have been written subsequently to that on trades and professions; the latter could never have been penned by the hand which had written the former. P. 300.

‘No character is more rare than that of a man who can do justice to his antagonist’s argument; and, till this is done, it must be equally difficult to do justice to his antagonist’s integrity. Ask a man, who has been the auditor of an argument, or who has recently read a book, adverse to his own habits of thinking, to restate the reasonings of the adversary. You will find him betraying the cause he undertakes to explain, in every point. He exhibits nothing but a miserable deformity, in which the most vigilant adversary could scarcely recognise his image. Nor is there any dishonesty in this. He tells you as much as he understood. Since therefore he understands nothing of the adversary but his opposition, it is no wonder that he is virulent in his invective against him.

‘The ordinary strain of partisans, are like the two knights, of whom we are told that, in coming in opposite directions to a head fixed on a pole in a cross way, of which one side was gold, and the other silver, they immediately fell to tilting; the right-hand champion stoutly maintaining that the head was gold, and the other as indignantly rejoicing that it was silver. Not one disputant in ten ever gives himself the trouble to pass over to his adversary’s position; and, of those that do, many take so short and timid a glance, and with an organ so clouded with prejudice, that, for any benefit they receive, they might as well have remained eternally upon the same spot.’

It is necessary to remark, that *one page* of this essay is devoted to an attack on that maxim of christianity, which says, ‘he that believeth shall be saved; he that believeth not shall be damned.’ (Mark, chapter xvi, verse 16.

Scarcely any thing is of more difficult definition than ‘true politeness,’ the subject of the tenth essay: it is very properly denominated by our author, ‘one of the lesser moralities:’ actions in which a man may consult the transitory feelings of his neighbour, and to which he can seldom

dom be prompted by a lofty spirit of ambition; 'actions which the heart can record, but which the tongue is rarely competent to relate.' Under the greater moralities, are ranged those actions of a man's life, adapted to purposes of beneficence, which are fraught with energy, and cannot be practised but in an exalted temper of mind. The following observations are not to be overlooked:

P. 329.—'The great line of distinction between these two branches of morality, is that the less is of incomparably more frequent demand. We may rise up and lie down for weeks and months together, without being once called upon for the practice of any grand and emphatical duty. But it will be strange if a day pass over our heads, without affording scope for the lesser moralities. They furnish, therefore, the most obvious test as to the habitual temper of our lives.

'Another important remark which flows from this consideration, is that the lesser moralities, however minute in their constituent particles, and however they may be passed over by the supercilious as unworthy of regard, are of great importance in the estimate of human happiness. It is rarely that the opportunity occurs for a man to confer on me a striking benefit. But, every time that I meet him, he may demonstrate his kindness, his sympathy, and, by attentions almost too minute for calculation, add new vigour to the stream of complacency and philanthropy that circulates in my veins.

'Hence it appears that the lesser moralities are of most importance, where politeness is commonly least thought of, in the bosom of family intercourse, and where people have occasion most constantly to associate together. If I see the father of a family perpetually exerting himself for what he deems to be their welfare, if he give the most unequivocal proofs of his attachment, if he cannot hear of any mischance happening to them without agony, at the same time that he is their despot and their terror, bursting out into all the fury of passion, or preserving a sour and painful moroseness that checks all the kindly effusions of their soul, I shall regard this man as an abortion, and I may reasonably doubt whether, by his mode of proceeding, he does not traverse their welfare in more respects than he promotes it.'

It is unnecessary to mention, that the politeness, which stands thus high in Mr. Godwin's estimation, is very different from that mockery of fine feeling, that hollow, insidious, and unmeaning courtesy, which is practised in some fashionable circles with so much assiduity and success: far from it, 'without habits of entire unqualified sincerity, the human character can never be raised to its true eminence. It gives what nothing else can so effectually give, an assured, unembarrassed, and ingenuous manner. It is the true progenitor of contentment, and of the complacency with which a virtuous man should be able to advert to his modes of proceeding. Insincerity corrupts and empoisons the soul of the actor, and is of pernicious example to every spectator.' It will naturally be asked, 'does Mr. Godwin's politeness prompt him to tell every man abruptly to his face the precise impression, unfavourable, perhaps disgusting, which he feels concerning him?' by no means; 'when I refuse to vent the feeling of bodily anguish in piercing cries, as the first impulse would prompt me to do, I am not therefore a hypocrite. In the same manner, if I refuse to treat any person with pointed contempt for every petty dislike, and prefer the keeping my mind always free for the reception of new and opposite
evi-

evidence; this is no breach of sincerity.' Though it is inconsistent with our limits to state the precise mode, in which Mr. G. has made the strictest sincerity accord with the most perfect politeness, such is in fact the case; and we do not recollect to have seen this difficult subject anywhere treated in so unexceptionable and masterly a manner, as in the essay before us.

The remaining pages of the *Enquirer* are dedicated to literary topics: the eleventh essay treats 'of learning.' Our author combats an opinion, which, however, is far from being general, that genius is at war with learning; that a persevering habit of reading kills the imagination, and narrows the understanding. He very naturally inquires, 'why are men not always savages? because they build upon one another's structures.' The superiority of that knowledge which is obtained from books, over that which is derived from casual conversation, or solitary unassisted musing, is happily illustrated; 'the intellect that depends upon conversation for nutriment may be compared to the man who should prefer the precarious existence of a beggar to the possession of a regular and substantial income.' Many excellent and useful observations are interspersed on the most profitable manner of reading.

'English style' forms the subject of the concluding essay. At what time has it been written and spoken in the greatest purity and perfection? It is the purpose of this essay to show, that it was never in so high a state of purity and perfection, as in the present reign of king George the Third. Before our author enters directly on the subject, he thus endeavours to fix an idea of the laws of just composition or style:

P. 370.—'And here I would lay it down as a maxim, that the beauty of style consists in this, to be free from unnecessary parts and excrescencies, and to communicate our ideas with the smallest degree of prolixity and circuitousness. Style should be the transparent envelop of our thoughts; and, like a covering of glass, is defective, if, by any knots and ruggedness of surface, it introduce an irregularity and obliquity into the appearances of an object, not proper to the object itself. The forming of an excellent composition, may be compared to the office of a statuary according to the fanciful idea of one of the ancients, who affirmed, that the statue was all along in the block of marble, and the artist did nothing more than remove those parts which intercepted our view of it. If he left any portion of the marble which ought to have been cut away, the statue was in some degree disfigured.

'In the mean while this maxim is not to be so construed as to recommend or vindicate the cutting away any words or expressions that are necessary to render the grammatical construction of a sentence complete. As little does it apply to those metaphors and ornaments of composition, which shall be found to increase the clearness or force with which an author's ideas are communicated to his readers. It applies only to those superfluities which, like dead flesh upon the limb of a human body, would call upon the skilful surgeon for the exercise of the knife or the caustic.

'The writers of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries had for the most part a custom, of entering upon their subject with an enumeration of the branches into which, as they supposed, it most naturally divided itself, or rather into which the genus, of which it was a branch, divided itself; and then dwelling, with tedious accuracy and minuteness, upon those parts which in no sort belonged to their purpose, but which they
thought

thought must be described, because they were connected with it. This is an insupportable fault. It is formal, phlegmatic, and repulsive. It detains us painfully in discussing all those things which we had no desire to know, and then dismisses us with a tired attention to consider what was material to the purpose. A skilful writer proceeds directly to his object. He shakes off with vigorous exertion every thing that would impede him, every thing that is, in the strict sense of the words, foreign and digressive.

We could not but smile to read this concluding paragraph, and recollect, that it was written by the author of "Political Justice:" for the great fault of that work, so far as style is concerned, is the pedantic exposure of arrangement and logical deduction, which ought to have been concealed. No man reasons with more closeness and subtlety than David Hume:—Mr. Godwin will be the last to dispute his pretensions;—but Mr. Hume very seldom suffers that formality of division and subdivision, which really exists in all his essays, to make it's appearance; the ugly scaffolding of composition should be taken away when the building is completed; this scaffolding is doubtless necessary in the construction; but a complete edifice is disfigured by suffering it to remain. In order to effect his purpose, Mr. Godwin has adduced a series of quotations from the writings of authors, the most eminent in their respective periods; he begins with the age of queen Elizabeth, and concludes with that of George the Second: 'the proposition intended to be established is, that the ordinary standard of elegant composition, at the present day, is superiour to the standard of english composition at any preceding period. This is, of course, a proposition that does not so well admit of being supported by an exhibition of affirmative instances. If the doctrine of this essay be true, it will probably follow, that no year passes without producing half a dozen new books or pamphlets, which might fairly be referred to by way of exemplification.'

Antecedent to the perusal of this essay we had entertained the same opinion with Mr G. respecting the progressive improvement of english composition, and its present superiority over the composition of any former period; notwithstanding which, we are inclined to consider the modern style of writing as rather exuberant of foliage than of fruit.

Mr. Godwin, we doubt not, has observed the strictest impartiality in his quotations; but the adduction of a few unconnected paragraphs does not appear to us sufficient to establish any peremptory conclusion on the present subject; it is almost like the pedant in Hierocles, who, when he offered his house to sale, carried a brick in his pocket, as a specimen of the building. Mr. Godwin has not allowed himself sufficient scope for the discussion of his subject, and the illustration of his remarks; to form a satisfactory and well-founded opinion on the superiour perfection of a national style at any one period of time, requires a course of various and very extensive reading: our author, in all probability, has established his proposition as firmly as it was possible for him, with the penurious assistance only of short and solitary extracts.

We rise from the perusal of Mr. Godwin's Enquirer, impressed with a sense of the bold and manly independence of his opinions: to several of them we cannot, indeed, assent; but to all of them we would pay that attention, which they are authorized to claim from the firmness and ability with which they are supported.

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MEDICINE.

ART. VIII. *Medical Inquiries and Observations: containing an Account of the Bilious remitting and intermitting yellow Fever, as it appeared in Philadelphia in the Year 1794. Together with an Inquiry into the proximate Cause of Fever; and a Defence of Blood-letting as a Remedy for certain Diseases.* By Benjamin Rush, M.D. Professor of the Institutes, and of clinical Medicine, in the University of Pennsylvania. Vol. IV. 8vo. 258 pages. Price 6s. in boards. Philadelphia, Dobson; London, Dilly. 1796.

LITTLE progress can be made in the improvement of any science, by continuing to follow the beaten tracks of inquiry; it is by adopting new modes of investigation, and considering circumstances under new points of view, that valuable additions are to be made. Whatever may be the result of the labours of the author of these Observations, he ventures to throw off the trammels of system and opinion, and to think for himself. The principles and theories that are advanced, notwithstanding the authority of the name under which they appear, should not, however, be adopted, without maturely deliberating on their nature and tendency, and completely examining the basis upon which they have been founded.

The author introduces his inquiries by remarking, that it is common in medical writings to extol facts at the expense of theory.

Pref. p. v.—‘Were I,’ says he, ‘disposed to consider the comparative merit of each of them, I should derive most of the evils of medicine from supposed facts, and ascribe all the remedies which have been uniformly and extensively useful, to such theories as are true. Facts are combined and rendered useful, only by means of theories; and the more disposed men are to reason, the more minute and extensive they become in their observations. Under the influence of these opinions, I have ventured to deliver, in the following pages, some new principles in medicine. I wish it had been convenient to have kept them a few years longer from the public eye, in order to have improved them by slow and frequent revisions; but the importunities of my pupils, added to a sense of the precarious tenure by which I hold a laborious life, have induced me to publish them in their present concise and immature state. If they lead the reader to exercise his reason in examining them carefully, he will readily supply my deficiency of time and study in preparing them for the press. He will reject what is erroneous in them, and apply what is not so, to all the diseases of the human body.’

The present work forms a continuation of the author's researches on medical subjects, and consists of three parts: 1st. An account of the bilious remitting and intermitting yellow-fever, as it appeared in Philadelphia, in 1794. 2dly, An inquiry into the proximate cause of fever. 3dly, A defence of blood-letting as a remedy for certain diseases.

In the first Dr. R. has made some useful additions, both theoretical and practical, to what he had before offered on the subject of the yellow-fever. Several facts are mentioned, that strongly mark the influence of certain circumstances in lessening the violence of the disease.

On

On the contagious nature of the yellow-fever there has been much difference of opinion, especially by practitioners in the West Indian Islands. This subject is here taken up, after some reflections on the best means of preventing and destroying the effects of the contagion.

P. 61.—‘ Let it not,’ says the author, ‘ be inferred from the enumeration of the means of preventing the contagion of this fever, that I admit a contagious nature to be one of its characteristic marks. Far from it. It is an accidental circumstance produced chiefly by the concurrence of the weather. The following statement of facts relative to its contagious character in different seasons, and countries, is the result of much inquiry upon this subject.

- ‘ 1st. It is in no instance contagious in some cases.
- ‘ 2dly. It is sometimes propagated by strangers, to strangers only, in the West Indies.
- ‘ 3dly. It sometimes affects the natives, as well as strangers, in the West India Islands.
- ‘ 4thly. It affects strangers, natives, and negroes in some instances. This was the case in Philadelphia in 1793, and in Norfolk in 1795.
- ‘ 5thly. It affects adults only, and none under puberty, as in Jamaica according to Dr. Hume.
- ‘ 6thly. It affects adults and children of all ages. This was evident in Philadelphia in 1793.
- ‘ 7thly. It affects other animals as well as the human species. It affected fowls and ducks in New York in the year 1795, and it affected cattle in Virginia, as I shall say presently, in the year 1794.
- ‘ 8thly. It affects the inhabitants of cities, and not of the country, as in Charleston in the years 1732, 1739, 1745, and 1748, and in Philadelphia in the year 1793.
- ‘ 9thly. It affects the inhabitants of both cities, and country, as in the state of New York in the year 1791.

‘ From these facts it would appear, that to suppose this fever should infect uniformly in all cases in order to acquire a contagious character, is as absurd as to suppose that cold and heat do not produce inflammatory fevers, because thousands of people are constantly exposed to them, without being indisposed. An aptitude or predisposition from season, climate, or constitution, must concur to render the contagion of this, as well as other malignant fevers, sufficiently active to produce a disease. As well might a traveller attempt to describe the climate of a new country, from the history of a single season, as a physician fix the character of an epidemic from its appearance in one season, or in one country. To know a disease perfectly, it should be seen, or studied in successive seasons, and in different countries.’

In tracing the origin of the fever, we also find, that the doctor has stated many interesting facts. On the condition of the air that is liable to produce this disorder, the author has formed the following hypothesis, with the insertion of which we shall take leave of the subject.

P. 75.—‘ This morbid peculiarity in the air is taken notice of by Dr. Sydenham, and acknowledged by him as an obscure circumstance in the history of epidemics. It resembles a solitary fever and a general epidemic, in beginning with violence, and gradually wasting its inflammatory force by time. To what change in the state of

the air, or to what impregnation of it, shall we attribute its disposition to impart a greater degree of malignity or inflammatory diathesis to diseases at one time than at another? Hippocrates, who felt the influence of this diathesis in his practice, ascribes it to "a divine something" in the atmosphere. Dr. Sydenham attributes it to certain mineral vapours exhaled from the bowels of the earth. I have suspected it to be the effect of a preternatural quantity of oxygen in the atmosphere. I know that the experiments of Mr. Sheele and Mr. Cavendish prove that the proportions of azote and oxygen are the same in different situations and different kinds of weather; but as their experiments were not made at a time when diseases of a high degree of inflammatory action were epidemic, I do not think they militate against my hypothesis. I lament that the want of eudiometrical instruments prevented my deciding this question by actual experiments, during the prevalence of our late inflammatory epidemics: but the following facts will, I hope, render the hypothesis probable. 1. The disease was most violent in those persons in whom there is supposed to be the greatest quantity of oxygen, viz. the young and the robust, and more especially those who live freely. 2. It affected those persons most violently who had lately arrived from places or situations in which oxygen abounded. Country people suffered more, under equal circumstances, from the fever, than the citizens of Philadelphia; but it was most violent in persons who, after spending four or five weeks at the sea-shore, returned to the city in the months of September and October. This was the case with Peter Brown and Henry Clymer, who sickened soon after they inhaled the atmosphere of our city, and were both affected by the fever in a very high degree. I should have suspected that the uncommon malignity of the disease in those two gentlemen arose from the indolence and plentiful diet which constitute part of the pleasure of an excursion to the sea-shore, had I not met with several cases of equal violence in persons who had just arrived from sea voyages, under circumstances by no means apt to produce inflammable diathesis in the blood-vessels. 3. The colour of the blood in most cases of yellow fever, as I shall say hereafter, was such as is imparted by oxygen. It is possible the air may communicate as much oxygen to the blood, as is sufficient to produce a predisposition to inflammatory diseases, and yet refuse to discover itself in an undue quantity to an eudiometrical experiment; for Dr. Beddoes, to whose authority upon this subject I yield my judgment, says, and I believe very justly, in a letter I received from him, dated May 3d, 1795, that "he has no doubt, but a small excess of oxygen is equal to the production of highly inflammatory action."

'If it should be found hereafter, that no excess in the quantity of oxygen in the atmosphere takes place during the prevalence of malignant fevers, I shall still suspect it to be their predisposing cause, and that it may possibly be derived from the aliments and fruits of the season; for all writers take notice of a connection between great and mortal epidemics, and a deviation in quality or quantity from common years in the vegetable products of the earth.'

On the 'proximate cause of fever' Dr. R.'s reasonings and opinions seem chiefly to rest on the principles of Dr. Brown. He has, indeed, ingrafted a few of his own notions on the stock of the latter, but,

but, perhaps, without affording it additional strength or beauty. In explaining the different states of debility, and the action of various causes in producing them, the doctor observes, that direct debility 'depends upon an abstraction of usual and natural stimuli,' and indirect debility 'upon an *increase* of natural, or upon the action of preternatural stimuli upon the body.' The latter part of this sentence does not appear to us to be quite correct. Natural stimuli may surely be considerably increased without inducing *indirect* debility. It must, therefore, be an *excess* of natural or preternatural stimuli that produces this state.

Dr. R. also supposes, in opposition to Brown, that there is an increased excitability in all cases of indirect debility; where it is *suddenly* induced upon the system.

P. 127.—'But,' says he, 'indirect and direct debility are upon a footing, where they are of a chronic nature. They both equally expend the excitability of the system, and leave it in a state in which stimuli generally act with too little force upon it to excite in it the commotions of fever.'

This we must leave Dr. R. to explain, as it is not very easy to conceive how either a state of direct or indirect debility can exhaust excitability.

Having advanced the following positions, viz. that 'fevers of all kinds are preceded by general debility;' that debility is always succeeded by increased excitability; and that the diminution or abstraction of one stimulus is always followed by the increased action of others, he applies them to fever in this way.

P. 127.—'Has the body been debilitated by long exposure to the cold air?—its excitability is thereby increased, and heat acts upon it with an accumulated force; hence the frequency of catarrhs, pleurifies, and other inflammatory fevers in the spring, after a cold winter; and of bilious remittents in the autumn, when warm days succeed to cold and damp nights. These diseases are seldom felt for the first time in the open air, but generally after the body has been exposed to cold, and afterwards to the heat of a warm room or a warm bed. Mild intermittents have frequently been observed to acquire an inflammatory type in the Pennsylvania hospital, in the months of November and December, from the heat of the stove rooms acting upon bodies previously debilitated by cold and disease.'

'Has there been an abstraction of heat by a sudden shifting of the wind from the south-west to the north-west or north-east points of the compass, or by a cold night succeeding to a warm day?—a fever is thereby frequently excited. These sources of fever occur every autumn in Philadelphia. The miasmata or contagion which exist in the body at that time in a harmless state, are excited into action by the debility from cold, aided in the latter case by the inaction of sleep suddenly induced upon the system.'

'Again: Has the body been suddenly debilitated by fatigue?—its excitement is thereby diminished, but its excitability is increased in such a manner that the stimulus of a full meal, or an intemperate glass of wine, if taken immediately after the fatigue is induced upon the body, excites a fever; hence the frequency of fevers in persons upon their return from hunting, surveying, long rides, or
from

from a camp life. A fever from the last cause, was very common during the late war in America. A hot supper, and afterwards the heat of a warm bed, sometimes induced not only fever, but a convulsion in the nervous system in many persons the night after they returned from the coarse diet of the camp, and from sleeping upon an earthen or wooden floor. Many other instances might be mentioned of fever being brought on by ordinary stimuli, acting upon increased or accumulated excitability.

'This connection of excitability with debility, has lately been pointed out by the french physicians by the terms "*laxité vibratile*," by which they mean a liableness in the system to be thrown into vibrations or motions by the predisposition of debility.

'That this vibratility, or disposition to preternatural motion in animal matter, is the predisposing cause of fevers, is evident from their occurring in those stages of life in which it is most common, as in infancy, childhood, youth, and middle life. Fevers are less common in old age, for the vibratility of the sanguiferous system, in which I shall presently say the proximate cause of *ordinary* fever is seated, generally declines in old people. It even lessens in the skin, as appears by contracting it for half a minute between the fingers.'

He next tells us, that 'the stimuli which are the remote or exciting cause of fever, act in a manner wholly different from what they do upon a body, in which there is no predisposition to fever. In health,' says he, 'there is a constant and just proportion between the degrees of excitement and excitability, and the force of stimuli. But this is not the case in a predisposition to a fever, the ratio between the action of stimuli, and excitement, and excitability, is destroyed; and hence the former act upon the latter with a force which produces irregular action or a convulsion in the arterial system.'

He also observes, that 'the stimuli which induce irregular action or convulsion of fever, act for the most part primarily upon the sanguiferous, and particularly upon the arterial system.'

There is then 'but one remote cause of fever, and that is stimulus; and 'but one fever.' Therefore 'all ordinary fever being seated in the blood-vessels,' Dr. R. thinks, 'it follows of course, that all those local affections we call pleurisy, angina, phrenitis, internal dropsy of the brain, pulmonary consumption, and inflammation of the liver, stomach, and limbs, are symptoms only of an original and primary disease in the sanguiferous system.'

'Fever, therefore, when not misplaced,' according to our author, p. 134, 'consists in a morbid excitement and irregular action in the blood-vessels, more especially in the arteries. This morbid excitement, or irregular action, manifests itself to the fingers, when pressed upon the radial artery, by preternatural fulness, force, and frequency, or by preternatural slowness, intermissions and depression in what are called inflammatory fevers, and by preternatural frequency without fulness or force, in what are called typhus fevers.

'I have called the action of the arteries *irregular* in fever, to distinguish it from that excess of action which takes place after violent exercise, and from that quickness which accompanies fear or any other directly debilitating cause. The action of the arteries here is *regular*, and when felt in the pulse, affords a very different perception

perception to the mind from that which we feel in the pulse of a patient labouring under a fever.

‘ This irregular action is, in other words, a *CONVULSION* in the sanguiferous, but more obviously, in the arterial system.’

The principles of the author’s doctrine of fever, being fully unfolded, he applies them in explanation of the various phenomena of the disease. In performing this difficult task, he is under the necessity of lopping off the whole of those nosological arrangements, that have so long fettered the progress of medical science. As he allows only of the existence of one fever, genera and species could not be admitted.

These diseases are here considered ‘ in the order of their inflammatory character, or according to the force of stimulus which acts upon the blood-vessels.’

In proceeding in this business the doctor adopts the method of Dr. Clark, and instead of the usual names substitutes certain definite states, which he supposes ‘ may be applied with varying circumstances to them all.’

‘ 1st. Such as affect the whole arterial system with no, or but little local affection.’

‘ 2d. Such as affect the whole arterial system, and are accompanied at the same time with evident local affections. And

‘ 3d. Such as appear to pass by the arterial system, and to fix themselves upon other parts of the body.’ These he calls *misplaced* states of fever.

On this plan the doctor has as many states of fever as there are principal symptoms, or affections of particular parts.

How far this may be an improvement on nosology we shall not take upon us to decide, but it is certainly none upon the method held out by Dr. Brown.

It does not, indeed, seem to us, that the author, by twisting, patching, and vamping the Brunonian doctrine, so as to make it square with the hypothetical and practical notions, which he entertains of fever, has rendered it more simple or more applicable in explaining the nature of the disease.

The ‘ defence of ‘ blood-letting’ is very elaborate; and, considering the nature of the subject, much extended. It is, indeed, rather an inquiry concerning its utility and advantages as a mean of removing febrile diseases, or what, in the author’s language, is termed states of fever, than the defence of an opinion respecting it.

In some of the positions of the doctor on this subject we apprehend there can be but little difference of opinion. Few physicians will hesitate to let blood where the inflammatory diathesis is present. The main point of dispute is with respect to the diseases, or, according to the doctor, the states of fever, in which this sthenic disposition prevails. In many of the disorders and states of disease that are mentioned by the author, it may be doubted, and we think justly, at least in temperate climates, that any such disposition is present. In such situations we cannot be persuaded, that a physician would be justified in drawing the lancet where *petechiæ* (what is here called the *gangrenous* state of fever) are present.

But

But the advantages of bleeding over every other remedy in this and several other similar states of the system are thus stated by Dr. R.

P. 220.—1. It abstracts one of the exciting causes, viz. the stimulus of the blood from the seat of fever. I have formerly illustrated this advantage of blood-letting by comparing it to the abstraction of a grain of sand from the eye to cure an ophthalmia. The other depleting remedies are as indirect and circuitous in their operation in curing fever, as vomits and purges would be to remove an inflammation in the eye, while the grain of sand continued to irritate it.

2. Blood-letting is quick in its operation, and may be accommodated to the rapidity of fever, when it manifests itself in apoplexy, palsy, and syncope.

3. It is under the command of a physician. He may bleed *when* and *where* he pleases, and may suit the *quantity* of blood he draws, exactly to the condition of his patient's system.

4. It may be performed with the least attendance of nurses or friends. This is of great importance to the poor at all times, and to the rich during the prevalence of contagious and mortal epidemics.

5. It disturbs the system much less than any of the other modes of depleting, and therefore is best accommodated to that state of the system, in which patients are in danger of fainting or dying upon being moved.

6. It is a more delicate depleting remedy than most of those which have been mentioned, particularly vomits, purges, and a salivation.

7. There is no immediate danger to life from its use. Patients have sometimes died under the operation of vomits and purges, but I never saw nor heard an instance of a patient's dying in a fainting fit, brought on by bleeding.

8. It is less weakening, when used to the extent that is necessary to cure, than the same degrees of vomiting, purging, and sweating.

9. Convalescence is more rapid and more perfect after bleeding, than after the successful use of any of the other evacuating remedies.

The states of the pulse, which, according to our author, indicate the necessity of blood-letting, are these:

P. 223.—1. A full, frequent, and tense pulse, such as occurs in the pulmonary, rheumatic, gouty, phrenitic, and maniacal states of fever.

2. A full, frequent, and jerking pulse, without tension, such as frequently occurs in the vertiginous, paralytic, apoplectic, and hydropic states of fever.

3. A small, frequent, but tense pulse, such as occurs in the chronic, pulmonary, and rheumatic states of fever.

4. A tense and *quick* pulse, without much preternatural frequency. This state of the pulse is common in the yellow fever.

5. A slow but tense pulse, such as occurs in the apoplectic, hydrocephalic, and malignant states of fever, in which its strokes are from 60, to 9, in a minute.

6. An uncommonly frequent pulse, without much tension, beating from 120 to 170 or 180 strokes in a minute. This state of the pulse occurs likewise in the malignant states of fever.

* 7. A soft pulse, without much frequency or fulness. I have met with this state of the pulse in affections of the brain, and in that state of pulmonary fever which is known by the name of pneumonia notha. It sometimes, I have remarked, becomes tense after bleeding.

* 8. An intermitting pulse.

* 9. A depressed pulse.

* 10. An imperceptible pulse. The slow, intermitting, depressed, and imperceptible states of the pulse, are supposed exclusively to indicate congestion in the brain. But they are all, I believe, occasioned likewise by great excess of stimulus acting upon the heart and arteries. A pulse more tense in one arm than in the other, I have generally found to attend a morbid state of the brain. Much yet remains to be known of the signs of a disease in the brain, by the states of the pulse: hence Mr. Hunter has justly remarked, that "In inflammation of the brain, the pulse varies more than in inflammations of any other part; and perhaps we are led to judge of inflammation there, more from other symptoms than the pulse."

A few other states of the pulse are likewise noticed which require the use of the lancet; after which the doctor gives directions to the young practitioner, for feeling the pulse.

Some observations are also offered in regard to the time, quantity, and manner of bleeding; and on some other morbid states of the system, in which the author supposes it will be found useful.

This paper unquestionably contains some important hints for the conduct of the practitioner in the use of blood-letting; and a large proportion of that kind of matter, that should be well investigated and examined before it is applied in the cure of disease.

ART. IX. *Oratio ex Harveyi instituta, &c.* A Gulielmo Saunders, M. D. &c. 4to. Price 3s. Phillips.

In this oration we meet with many fine compliments, conveyed in good and frequently elegant latin. A. R.

METAPHYSICS.

ART. X. *Elements of the Critical Philosophy: containing a concise Account of its Origin and Tendency; a View of all the Works published by it's Founder, Professor Immanuel Kant; and a Glossary for the Explanation of Terms and Phrases. To which are added: Three Philological Essays; chiefly translated from the German of John Christopher Adelung.* By A. F. M. Willich, M. D. 8vo. 332 pages. Price 6s. Boards. Longman. 1798.

OUR readers will probably recollect, that an Elementary View of Kant's Philosophy was lately published by Mr. Nitsch. For our opinion of that work we refer to Vol. xxv. p. 11, of our Review. The work before us appears to have the same object in view, being intended to furnish the learned in this country with a general sketch of Mr. Kant's principles, and to excite their attention to a system, which, from it's novelty and importance, demands examination. This synopsis our author introduces with a prefatory account of the several systems of philosophy, which prevailed successively

successively in Germany, from the time of Wolf to the present period. He informs us, that, after the systems of Descartes, Leibnitz, and Wolf had sunk into discredit, and an incongruous philosophy, termed eclecticism, *had some time obtained, they were at last succeeded by an avowed scepticism and infidelity, to the propagation of which the influence of Frederic the Great not a little contributed. This scepticism, he tells us, was vigorously assailed by Tetens, a philosopher of considerable eminence, in a work published in 1777, entitled 'Philosophical Inquiries concerning Human Nature, and the Developement of it.' This production, however, it appears, was not accompanied with the desired effect: scepticism and an incoherent philosophy still continued to maintain their ground.—Such was the state of things, when there appeared, in the year 1781, a work entitled the 'Critique of pure Reason,' which, in the judgment of Mr. W., promised a total and beneficial reform in every philosophical department. The author of this publication is Mr. Kant, who, by various compositions long before this time, had announced himself as an original genius, and an excellent philosopher. It appears from our author's account, and from Kant's own words, which are here quoted, that it was the 'suggestions of David Hume, in his inquiries concerning causation, which first roused the attention of the professor, and gave a different direction to his speculations.' It appears also, that Kant maintained, that the opponents of Mr. Hume misunderstood the tendency of his problem concerning causation; and we find him here condemning, in very pointed terms, every appeal to *common sense* in metaphysical discussions; a mode of argumentation, which we concur with him in censuring as impertinent and unphilosophical.

P. 12. — "The opponents of this celebrated man [Hume], in order satisfactorily to solve *his* problem, would have been under the necessity of penetrating more profoundly into the abstract nature of reason, in so far as it is employed in *pure* thought; an inquiry to which *they* were little, if at all, disposed.—Hence they contrived a more convenient method of displaying their malignity, without subjecting themselves to the trouble of making further researches; namely, the appeal to the *common sense of mankind*.—It is indeed a great gift of Heaven, to possess a plain and unbiassed understanding;—but we must manifest it, and establish ourselves in this possession, by facts, by reflection, and by reason, by what we do and say; not by appealing to it as an oracle, when we can produce no rational arguments to justify the claim.—When observation and science are put to the last shift, then, and not sooner, is it time to appeal to common sense.—This is one of the subtle contrivances of modern times, by which the shallow prattler assumes a right, boldly to challenge a man of profound erudition, and frequently maintains the contest. As long, however, as there is any room left for discovery, we shall do well to beware of having recourse to this last expedient. And, in truth, this appeal is nothing else than a submission to the judgment of the multitude, a reference at which the philosopher blushes, but in which the silly witling triumphs and exults.—I should think, too, Hume might have laid claim to

a sound understanding, as well as Beattie; and besides, to what the latter certainly did not possess, to a critical acquaintance with that species of reasoning, which keeps common sense within due bounds, and prevents it from losing itself in speculations; or what is more to the present purpose, which hinders it from deciding upon any subject, because it knows not how to justify it's mode of proceeding upon it's own principles; a restraint, without which an understanding will not long remain sound.—The chisel and the mallet may do well enough for shaping a piece of timber, but the radius-needle, a nicer instrument, must be employed for engraving.—In the same manner, a sound and plain understanding, as well as a speculative one, are each of use in their turn; the former, when we are conversant about judgments that are immediately applicable to experience; the latter, when we are about forming general judgments from mere abstract ideas, as in metaphysics, where the understanding, termed sound or plain, but often erroneously so denominated, cannot afford any assistance."

Our author, after giving us the sentiments of Mr. Kant, concerning the philosophy of Hume and his opponents, proceeds next to furnish us with a general outline of the professor's 'Critique of pure Reason,' which, of all Kant's systematic works, we are told is the most distinguished by profound reasoning and striking illustration.—It's leading principles are these,—that we are in possession of certain notions, *a priori*, independent of all experience, though the objects of experience correspond with them: that these notions are distinguished by necessity and strict universality, and opposed to empirical notions, or such as are possible only *a posteriori* or through experience: that beside these we have certain notions, with which no objects of experience ever correspond, and which we consider as the most sublime, such as God, Liberty, and Immortality: that by the sensitive faculty we form perceptions, and by the understanding we form general ideas: that by the former we experience impressions, and objects are given to us; by the latter, we bring representations of these objects before us, and think of them: that, as the sensitive faculty has it's determined forms, so has the understanding likewise forms *a priori*: that the judgment is the capacity of applying the general ideas of the understanding to the information of experience: that the objects of experience are regulated according to these ideas, not, *vice versa*, our ideas according to the objects. Dr. W., after presenting us with this general outline of Kant's Critique, proceeds to inform us what objections have been offered to it by some german philosophers, and then concludes his introduction with an extract from professor Staudlin's Treatise on the Sources and Origin of Scepticism.

The plan of the synopsis, to which our attention is next directed, is, 1st, to explain the aim and moral tendency of Kant's Critique of pure Reason, by giving us his peculiar definition and division of philosophy, accompanied with five connected problems; and, 2dly, to detail 'the particular contents of all his works.' In the execution of this design, Dr. W. informs us, that reason is that faculty, which affords us the principles of comparative knowledge

ledge *a priori*; and that Kant's 'Critique of pure Reason' is established on this principle, that there is a reason independent of experience and sensation. He then proceeds to state the five problems, which, as he thinks, the professor has thoroughly solved, and in a way, 'which, perhaps, no philosopher had ever supposed.' They are these.

P. 43.—1st, 'To determine the nature of the sensitive faculty and it's distinction from understanding.'

P. 44.—2dly, 'To investigate the whole store of original notions discoverable in our understanding, and which lie at the foundation of all our knowledge; and at the same time to authenticate their true descent, by showing that they are not derived from experience, but are pure productions of the understanding.'

P. 45.—3dly, 'To shew in what manner we are entitled to ascribe objective reality to those notions, which are merely something subjective in us; or in other words, to shew how the understanding is justified in going, as it were, out of itself, and in transferring its notions to things which are external to it, that is, to refer them to objects.'

P. 49.—4thly, 'To determine by these means the true bounds of human reason, consequently to explain positively, how far our reason can reach through mere speculation; where, on the contrary, our proper knowledge ceases, and nothing but faith and hope remain.'

P. 51.—5thly, 'To solve the riddle, why our reason is so irresistibly inclined to venture with it's speculations beyond the bounds of possible knowledge; and hence to detect the fallacy, by which it is in this respect involuntarily deceived.'

Our limits will not permit us to transcribe the solution of these problems; and to abbreviate what is itself an abridgement, would, on subjects like the present, be wholly unsatisfactory. We must, therefore, refer our readers to the volume itself for information, requesting, as we pass, that they will not dismiss as unintelligible what will certainly at first reading appear extremely obscure, if not incomprehensible. Whatever may be our sentiments respecting the professor's success in the solution of these problems, we cannot withhold from him the praise of great ingenuity and profound thought.

In the chronological analysis, which forms the second part of the author's plan, we are presented with a catalogue of the professor's works, together with a brief abstract of those which Dr. W. considers to be the most important.—In detailing the contents of Kant's 'Critique of pure Reason,' the author informs us, that the professor, in order to ascertain the source of all human knowledge and judgment, deemed it necessary to institute an accurate analysis of the intuitive faculty of man. This faculty the professor discovered to be 'a compound of very dissimilar ingredients;' that it consisted of parts very different in their nature, each performing functions peculiar to itself, viz. the sensitive faculty and the understanding. 'The former,' says Dr. W. 'represents the matter of things, so as it is affected by them; the latter connects the variety of these materials into a whole. These two operations, must always

precede, if there shall take place a representation or intuition of a determined object. Both, therefore, are essential constituents of the intuitive faculty of man, and both must be active, at the same time, in every intuition.' The former may receive clear or obscure impressions; the latter also may combine in a distinct or confused manner. The understanding may even, says he, form a clear notion of things that never can become objects of sense; and the senses may perceive things, which the understanding cannot represent: though, at the same time, he observes, it is impossible to have an intuition of any one object, unless both faculties are actively concerned in the same object. The senses can do nothing further than perceive or represent the given thing immediately, and the understanding only can think of it, that is, exhibit the given thing by mediately connecting it into one. 'This distinction,' says our author, 'between the sensitive and intellectual faculties forms an essential feature in the philosophy of Kant; it is the basis, on which most of his subsequent inquiries are established.'

Kant, having thus analysed the sensitive faculty, and endeavoured to discover the necessary conditions, without which our sensitive faculty cannot perceive any objects whatever; and having separated all, which in the phenomena of the senses is merely accidental, or owing to the functions of the intellect; discovered, that two conditions only remain, without which neither our sensitive faculty nor its objects are conceivable. These conditions are space and time. In the discussion of this subject, Dr. W. tells us, that Kant clearly shows,

P. 71.—1, That both these representations are the immediate productions of the senses, and consequently admit of no further derivation. Hence it was a fruitless attempt of LEIBNITZ, who endeavoured to explain their origin from intellectual notions. The understanding has, indeed, the power of arranging space and time with their modifications, under the ideas of order, unity, and so forth, but it cannot derive either of them from these ideas; it can unfold and explain their contents, but it cannot conceive the possibility of their origin, any further than that they are something given us by the sensitive faculty itself.

2, They must be thought of as the substratum of all sensible objects, i. e. as the forms of all phenomena. But they are not real objects and self-subsistent, as CLARKE imagined: their reality wholly depends upon those things, which can be observed in them: abstractly considered, they are the bare forms of our sensitive faculty; forms, through which we are enabled to determine, that all real objects of sense are conformable to them, or that these objects must of necessity be given in them.—It is by this manner of representation, that we can explain *all* the predicates of space and time, as that of infinity, continuity, uniformity, &c. without incurring those difficulties, which have been productive of the greatest confusion in philosophy, and which have involved mathematics and metaphysics into perpetual dissensions.

3, Finally, Kant also shews, that space and time, being the forms of *our* sensitive faculty, must consequently be conceived as the forms of those objects only, of which *we* can attain intuitions;

thus they are merely forms of phenomena, and not the forms of all things in general, that are the objects of knowledge. Nay, it is even conceivable, that the things exhibited to us in space and time, abstractly considered, may be viewed or perceived by other thinking beings, under very different forms; although it is not in our power, either to determine more precisely this difference, or to ascertain the real possibility of it, by any arguments favourable to this conjecture.'

After proving, says Dr. W., that there are neither more nor fewer of the necessary conditions of perception in the sensitive faculty than space and time, Kant proceeded to the investigation of the understanding, as the second principal constituent of the intuitive faculty. Here the author informs us, that Kant has completely terminated the long contest maintained by philosophers concerning the number of categories, or primary notions, by discovering, that they can be only twelve: but how this discovery was made we are not told.

Dr. W., after stating how the understanding must represent to itself given objects, or how an intuition of them becomes possible, proceeds to the particular analysis of the intellectual faculty, in forming conclusions, which Kant denominates practical reason.

P. 74.—'This branch of the intellectual faculty, by virtue of it's constitution, produces certain notions, to which no objects whatever correspond *in* experience, although they are connected *with* it in succession, and are both influenced and determined by experience. It is namely, in general, the idea of the *unconditional* or *absolute*, that is immediately connected with the nature of reason, and through which, according to the different form of rational conclusions, the ideas of an absolute subject or *mind*, of an absolute cause or *liberty*, and of an absolute totality of all that is possible, i. e. the idea of *God*, take their respective origin.'

For the further deduction of these notions abstracted from pure reason, Dr. W. refers us to the 'Critique.'

Having thus explained the principles of Kant, respecting the intuitive faculty, he next directs our attention to the manner in which religion by this system is secured against the attacks of it's adversaries, and fortified against arbitrary and accidental additions. After remarking, that the real predicates of a thing cannot be conceived in any other manner than by sensible perception, and that we are therefore unqualified to apprehend the real predicates of those things which are not objects of sense, he proceeds to observe, that, though we cannot obtain any theoretical intuition of these objects, we can discover another source, from which we derive a subjective and practical knowledge of their relations to the nature of man; and that it is of the first consequence to ascertain, whether we have a sufficient ground for our ideas of these supersensible objects. The origin then of our ideas, says our author, is, according to Kant, the mind itself, and is actually that, which we call the moral sense. This alone the professor believes to be a safe intuitive ground for determining the reality of the ideas concerning God, liberty, and immortality, and this alone, in his opinion, esta-

lishes the true relations, in which we can form dignified conceptions of deity.

In exhibiting the outlines of Kant's system of morals, our author informs us, that he takes for granted, that we are moral beings; that the moral sense is an essential part of human nature; that reason places the highest value of man, solely and exclusively, in his moral feelings; and that it reduces all his power and prosperity to these feelings, and values the whole of the former according to the effects produced on the latter. After observing, that morality should always be accompanied with a proportionate share of happiness, but that experience however proves this not to be the case, he says,

p. 86.—‘ But although we observe in this world no such moral order, as exhibits happiness and morality in constant proportion; our reason still preserves an uncommon propensity to maintain, that such an order must actually exist. This, however, is a presupposition which can be justified, neither by argument nor demonstration, nor through the real exposition of such an order; but which is established merely upon a ground contained in our own mind. This ground rests on the necessary internal obligation of being morally good, or on the moral feelings common to all mankind, and acknowledged by all good men. The actual existence of a moral order is so intimately connected with these feelings, that the consciousness of them continually impels us to presuppose this order. And the more eager we cultivate morality, by displaying much vigour in the observation of it's laws; the more firmly and thoroughly we become convinced, that there must exist a complete moral order.’

He adds, p. 90.—‘ Thus we presuppose a moral order, while we confidently rely upon our reason and our moral nature; because the reality of it must be conceived from it's being so intimately united with our moral feelings. It is certain, that we are moral agents, consequently the conditions must also be certain, without which our moral nature, in the eyes of our own reason, would be a nonentity. According to reason, however, our moral nature consists in this, that man is an absolute purpose, to which all other things are subordinate means. Yet morality and happiness, united to one purpose, compose the destination of man, so that the former determines the latter. Without a moral order, this is impossible. And as, agreeably to reason, moral beings must have it in their power to contribute towards the attainment of their destination; the reality of a moral order must likewise be admitted; because it is the only condition, upon which the inference can be justified. If we then allow the existence of a moral order, we must also submit to those conditions, without which it is wholly impossible. Though we cannot comprehend the real possibility of this order, we must nevertheless grant, that those conditions are real, without which such an order cannot at all be conceived. But it is inconceivable, if we do not admit, 1, that the laws of the world of sense are not the only ones, by which all events are determined: that the world itself is subject to still higher laws, and upon the whole, relates to something, which is independent on the world, or external to it,

and

and to which the world is merely subservient; 2, that there exists a cause, through which every thing is determined according to the laws of a moral order, to which consequently every thing is subject, and upon which every thing in the world depends; and lastly, 3, that the personality or individual existence of man continues, in order that through him the moral order may be accomplished.

‘It is easy to perceive, that the first of these postulates leads to the idea of a supersensible world, which is independent on the laws subsisting in the world of sense, i. e. which is *free*. The second idea involves the conception of a *Deity*. For, if we separate every arbitrary and adventitious matter from the idea of the Deity, and preserve that alone, upon which a representation worthy of so sublime a Being can be established; nothing further remains than the thought of, a connection or relation, by means of which that Being must be the foundation of a thorough moral order. No other idea, however, but that of an intelligent power could entitle or even induce us to entertain a notion like that of moral order; hence it is conceivable, how in this idea alone we meet with some analogy, that serves to distinguish so sublime a Being, and, together with the most perfect will, to attribute to it all those properties, through which only so sacred a will can be exerted. Lastly; that the third principle before stated, leads to the *immortality of the soul*, is now a very rational inference.’

Dr. W., beside presenting us with a concise analysis of Kant's ‘Critique of pure Reason,’ and ‘Theory of Morals,’ gives us also a short abstract of Kant's ‘Metaphysical Principles of Natural Philosophy,’ of his ‘Critique of Practical Reason,’ of his ‘Critique of the Judging Faculty,’ of his ‘Religion considered within the Bounds of mere Reason,’ and of his ‘Project for a perpetual Peace,’ together with his ‘Metaphysical Elements of Jurisprudence.’

When it is considered, that, in this chronological analysis, not less than thirty different publications are noticed in the compass of eighty pages, it cannot be supposed, even though merely the titles of seventeen are specified, that the abstract can contain much satisfactory information. We repeat, what we suggested on a former occasion, that a correct translation of Kant's ‘Critique of pure Reason,’ with illustrations, would be a much more useful work, than a catalogue of his publications, or an abstract from works, which require exposition rather than abridgement.—To the analysis is annexed a very useful glossary, containing an explanation of the terms employed by the professor; to which are subjoined three Philological Essays, chiefly translated from the german of John Christopher Adelung.—The first contains a concise history of the english language, comprehending a period of nearly fourteen centuries; in which the author considers how the pure anglo saxon language was affected, 1st, by the incursions of the danes, 2dly, by the norman conquest, and, 3dly, by the later adoption of french phrases and improvements, or the intermixture of the normanic saxon with the more modern french.—The second essay contains a philosophical view of the english language. The third is an inquiry into the relative merits and demerits of Johnson's english

english dictionary. Of these our limits will only permit us to say, that they may be read with improvement by the young student in english philology.

M. T.

BOTANY.

ART. XI. *Plants of the Coast of Coromandel; selected from Drawings and Descriptions presented to the Honourable Court of Directors of the East India Company; by W. Roxburgh, M. D. published by their Order, under the Direction of Sir Joseph Banks, P. R. S.* Four fasciculas. elephant folio. pr. 1l. 1s. each plain, or 3l. 10s. each coloured. Printed by Bulmer, for Nichol. 1795, &c.

In a preface by Dr. Patrick Russell we are informed, that this is the beginning of a progressive work, with which the directors of the India company have determined to favour the public. It is intended, that a selection shall be made from five hundred drawings and descriptions, presented to the directors by Dr. R., one of the company's medical servants, and their botanist in the Carnatic; and while, with a more immediate view to utility, preference shall be given to subjects connected either with medicine, the arts, or manufactures; the directors encourage the admission of new plants, or of such as have been hitherto imperfectly described, although their qualities or uses may yet remain unexplored. Till within these thirty years botany seems to have been little attended to in the Carnatic; about which period, if not introduced, it was at least greatly promoted by John Gerard Koenig, a native, it is believed, of Courland, who, about 1768, went to India, under the protection of the king of Denmark, as physician to the danish settlement at Tranquebar, where he resided several years. Such was his enthusiasm in the study of natural history, that he set bodily fatigue, spare meals, and a scorching climate at defiance, while the simplicity of his manners, and his readiness to impart knowledge, conciliated the good-will of all with whom he conversed. He occasionally visited the dutch, french, and english settlements; but finding his slender salary at Tranquebar insufficient for the expenses attendant on his excursions, however frugally conducted, he obtained, by the interest of his friends, the appointment of naturalist to the nabob of Arcot, in whose service he remained several years, during which period he made a voyage to Ceylon, some account of which has been given to the public by Hennings in his description of Tanjore and Tranquebar. His frequent residence at Madras naturally led him to a more familiar intercourse with the english, and Dr. R., who had long applied to botany, under hope of entering into the service of the India company, in 1776, found in Koenig an experienced guide. In 1778 Koenig representing to the board at Madras, that his finances were inadequate to the extensive schemes he had in contemplation, and that his salary from the nabob was irregularly paid, the board granted him a monthly allowance, which enabled him to make a voyage to the Straits of Malacca, and Siam, whence he returned towards the end of 1779. Having now determined to devote his time to the service of the India company, the board of Madras, in 1780, made an addition to his salary, which received the approbation of the court of directors. In the beginning of 1782, Dr. Russell, on his arrival in India, became acquainted with Koenig, who not only communicated to him his catalogue

logue of Coromandel plants, but, as an inducement to engage in indian botany, gave him a number of specimens. In 1784 Koenig, on his way to Bengal, visiting Vizagapatam, Dr. Russell suggested to him the propriety of transmitting to the court of directors a select fasciculus of drawings and descriptions, by way of specimen of his labours, earnestly recommending him to make such a disposition of his manuscript papers, as might, in case of death, ensure their falling into the possession of one qualified to appreciate their merit, and able to employ them in a manner most conducive to the writer's reputation. Koenig returned from Calcutta in april 1785, and after a repose of two or three weeks, in which time he remarkably recovered his strength and spirits, he proceeded to Jagrenatporum, with a full resolution to set about the proposed selection; but, towards the end of may, his distemper, which was the flux, returning, he gradually sunk under it, in spite of the skill of Dr. R., and died on the 26th of june. On the 6th of that month he had made his will, bequeathing his manuscripts and specimens of plants to sir Joseph Banks. Some days before his death, he himself saw such papers as he was then in possession of sealed up in the presence of Dr. R., by whom they were dispatched to sir Joseph. These arrived safe, but those dispersed at different places, particularly at Tranquebar, have not hitherto appeared, though Drs. Russell and Roxburgh did all in their power in India to recover them. Though these manuscripts contained many valuable descriptions and observations, there was nothing found in a state fit for a separate publication; but they have afforded assistance to the present work, in which his botanical remarks will be occasionally inserted. A few months after his death, Dr. Russell was appointed his successor, who, considering that it would be a public loss if the design of Koenig should be entirely relinquished, and conceiving that many descriptions and remarks would be found among his papers, while drawings from the living plants might be made in India, he resolved to attempt a work limited to the useful plants of Coromandel, which he thought might prove of service to India. His plan met with the approbation of the governor of Madras, the medical board, and the court of directors; but before that of the latter arrived, Dr. Russell had left India. Their directions, however, drawn up with the advice of sir Joseph Banks, fell fortunately into hands well qualified to carry them into execution. Dr. R., of Samulcottah, who had lived much with Koenig, had made a large collection of plants in the Carnatic, and, for several years previously to his appointment, had retained a painter constantly employed in drawing plants, which he described, adding such remarks on their uses as he had learned from experience, or collected from the natives. Of these drawings and descriptions the first parcel was received in 1791, and the last, which completed the number of five hundred, in 1794, from which the present selection has been made. Sir Joseph Banks, who had been previously consulted on the subject by the court of directors, gave in a plan and estimate of the expence of the proposed publication, with specimens of the engravings, expressing his readiness to overlook the general execution of the work, and Dr. Russell's willingness to correct the letter-press. These offers the directors most cordially accepted. Mr. Dryander is also said to have rendered material service in the correction of descriptions, and in settling synonimes. Such is the account which we have collected from the preface, and we have the satisfaction to say, after a careful perusal of the work, that it does great credit to the abilities and
care

care of all concerned in it's execution, and in particular to it's ingenious author, who, we have the pleasure to find from the preface, has been lately appointed inspector of the botanic garden at Calcutta. The plates are engraved by Mackenzie, who, probably through inadvertence, has engraved on the first plate, "Mackenzie omnes fecit," which implies that they were both drawn and engraved by him, whereas it is evident from the preface, that they were drawn in India, probably by a hindoo artist, whose name we hope Dr. R. will not omit in his future communications. They who have seen the drawings may determine whether the designer or engraver be chargeable with the want of convexity in the tuberous roots of the *ceropogia tuberosa* t. 9, and in the middle of the seed vessel of *gærtnera racemosa* t. 18, and with the want of ribs in all the leaves of *curculigo orchioides* t. 13, the lower on the right hand excepted. The plates appear to be well coloured, but in several of them parts are left uncoloured, the colouring of which would have added greatly to the effect of the whole. In *svietenia febrifuga* t. 17, the folioles of the upper margin of the petiole are neither coloured, nor the veins even marked by the tool of the engraver, so that at the first glance the petioles appear branches bearing pendant leaves growing from the lower side of the branch. In *sterculia urens* t. 24, and *sterculia colorata* t. 25, the leaves and petioles are uncoloured, as also those of the male branch of *diospyros sylvatica* t. 47; but as these omissions occur only in the first two of the four fasciculi which constitute this volume, we conclude such circumstances will not again occur.

The descriptions do Dr. R. very considerable credit, but we wish he would habituate himself to write in latin, as well as english, and always to give full descriptions, not satisfying himself with referring his reader to the descriptions in the Genera Mantissa, and Supplementum Plantarum of the Linnæi. In his account of *memecylon edule* 59, t. 82, he says, 'The parts of fructification as in Reichard's edition of the Gen. Pl.' Now if we refer to that work, we shall find the calyx described as "undivided, above the germen, and the margin entire;" but on inspecting the plate, the calyx appears below the germen, and quadrifid. In the description the filaments are said to be "dilated at the end;" in the figure they are of the same thickness: in the description the germen is said to be "turbinate;" in the figure it is ovate. In the account of *telsona grandis* 10, t. 6, he says, the corolla is as described in the Suppl. Pl. If we turn to that work, we shall find it described as white with brownish black dots, while in the figure it is whitish straw coloured, the upper half of the segments dotted with light brownish red. Dr. R., by simply describing things as they appeared before him, would have precluded all doubts in the mind of the reader, whether to trust to the descriptions of authors who had not seen the plant growing, or to the pencil of an artist in London, who copies the lines and tints of an artist in India. Dr. R. cannot follow a better guide than his master, in indian botany. The descriptions inserted in this work, from that excellent observer, are complete ones, and it is to be regretted, that the number of those which have been inserted is so small. The editors, we hope, have inserted all the descriptions of Koenig, which could by any means be ascertained to belong to the plants described in this work. The court of directors, as we find from the preface, have made Dr. R. a handsome present of botanical books; but, if they could prevail on the possessor of Koenig's manuscripts, to allow them to publish, for the benefit of their servants in India, all the observations which he made on the plants of India, whether contained in the

the works of Retzius or hitherto unpublished, thrown together in form of an indian Flora, they would render him a still more essential aid. We would also suggest to them, and to their learned and excellent editor, the advantages which their servants in India would derive from a re-publication of the letter-press of the present work, in an 8vo or 12mo size in India, in which Dr. R. might insert all such new observations, remarks, and corrections, as may have occurred respecting the plants contained in it. And with a view to this, we shall offer to his consideration such farther remarks, as have occurred to us in the perusal of the work, in our next.

THEOLOGY.

ART. XII. *Prospectus with Specimens of a New Polyglott Bible in Quarto for the Use of English Students.* By Josiah Pratt, M. A. Pr. 1s. Oxford, printed; London, Rivingtons. 1797.

THE utility of Polyglotts has been universally acknowledged: and early exertions, on the revival of letters, were made to procure such a work. The first of any note, that appeared in print, was that of Alcalá in 1514, commonly called the Complutensian Bible, from *Complutum*, the latin name of Alcalá. It was followed by Philip's Royal Bible, printed at Antwerp in 1519, under the care of Arias Montanus; which contains, in the New Testament, some additions to that of Alcalá. The great and splendid Polyglott of Paris was published in 1645, and contains the syriac and arabic versions, and the samaritan text of the Pentateuch, which were not in the former editions: and the edition of Paris was greatly improved, and partly augmented by the London Polyglott of 1658: which has since been the great standard Polyglott, throughout all Europe. This has made it scarcer in England than might otherwise have been expected, and raised it's price in proportion to it's rarity. And it is much to be wished, that it were re-edited, with the very many improvements of which it is susceptible, and which the labour of latter critics have provided, or might provide. Such a work, however, seems not to have been intended by Mr. P., who for many years has been preparing a *New Polyglott*, in which, to use his own words, p. 7, 'he had it especially in view—to facilitate the study of the original Scriptures; and this with reference to two ends—to introduce them to more general regard in Christian education—and to lead the scholar from systematic interpretations of them to the simple study of their divine wisdom.

With these views, he has long been employed in the preparation of a new Polyglott Bible; wherein it is intended to unite the hebrew text of the Old Testament with the common english translation, the greek septuagint version, the latin vulgate, and the chaldee paraphrases, in five parallel columns; and below these, across the page, to give the samaritan Pentateuch in hebrew characters; and, beneath this, all the important various readings of the hebrew text collected by Kennicott and De Rossi. In the New Testament; the greek text, the common english translation, the old syriac version in hebrew characters, and the latin vulgate, will form four parallel columns; and will be accom-

panied by all the chief various readings of the greek text collected by Mill, Bengelius, Wettstein, Birch, Matthæi, Griesbach, and others. The size will be quarto, as being the most convenient for use. The arrangement of the text and notes, and the comparative sizes of types, may be seen in the annexed specimens; to which it is intended to adhere, as nearly as may be, in the execution of the work itself. In order to present as pure copies as possible of the septuagint, vulgate, and targums, the chief various readings of those versions will be given in three parallel columns, at the end of the Old Testament; and, to answer the same purpose with regard to the syriac and vulgate versions of the New, their chief various readings will be given in two parallel columns at the end of that Testament. The various readings of the samaritan Pentateuch will be given in the margin.

The work will be preceded by prolegomena, in which it is intended to bring together every thing interesting to the student respecting the critical history of the original texts, and the english, septuagint, vulgate, chaldee, and syriac versions; all which will be given in distinct dissertations. A concise account will also be given of all the other ancient, and of all the chief modern versions. Besides the more immediate critical history of the original texts; their authenticity, inspiration, language, style, &c. will be briefly considered. An introduction to each book will likewise be given; and every thing, in short, brought together which concerns the Bible as an ancient volume, written by different men in different languages and style, and preserved by the Providence of God under various circumstances. As there is scarcely an important position throughout this extensive field which has not been the subject of controversy, it will be rendered as familiar and instructive to the student as possible, by avoiding, as much as may be, the argumentative form, and referring to the authorities for the conclusions which may be adopted. As the direct use of the work is independent of the prolegomena, this part will be last published; that more time may be obtained to do justice to its extent and importance.

Such a work appears to the author to be calculated to facilitate the study of the original Scriptures. Much has been done of late years to this end, and it has been done well and laudably. The want of an early initiation into the knowledge of the original Scriptures has been severely felt by many when arrived at maturer years, when their eyes were opened to see what alone was really worth the pursuit of an immortal mind. But the difficulties which presented themselves to those who had not acquired the original languages in their youth were so considerable, that though some have by perseverance succeeded, yet many have rested in a very superficial acquaintance with the original Scriptures; and many more, though it is their proper profession to explain the word of God, remain utterly ignorant of the language in which a great part of it was written. These difficulties are now in a measure removed; and there are many who with the author would perhaps never have had courage to begin the study of the eastern languages, or to have made any progress in the critical study of the Scriptures, if they had not been allured and assisted by the two admirable Lexicons of the late Mr. Parkhurst. Yet in these pursuits he had often occasion to feel that something was still wanting. Difficulties occurred. He knew that the english, or the septuagint, or the

the vulgate, might remove them; but he was too indolent to consult them. Every student will understand him, and to a real student he is not afraid of making the confession. Such an one, however diligent, often blesses the hand which lightens his labour. Walton was unwieldy. Besides he was too learned. The formidable array of his learned page chilled and repelled the unskilful in arms. This suggested the present undertaking; upon which he has laboured, more or less, for several years. If the public will be pleased to accept his labours, he hopes that in them the future student will find his path easy and inviting—by the convenience of the form—by the union of the english translation with the original texts and their chief ancient versions—by the exclusion of those eastern versions, which, being somewhat removed from the originals and beyond the reach of the time and courage of most students, must be confined to the few who meet them with greater intrepidity and under more favourable circumstances—and by printing the samaritan and syriac in a character familiar to the hebrew scholar. By these advantages it is designed to fit this Polyglott for the common reading and studying Bible of the biblical scholar; who, by using it in all his private studies as he would a common english Bible, will make an incredible though insensible proficiency in the knowledge of the original Scriptures.

The texts and translations then to be contained in this Polyglott are the common *hebrew* and *samaritan* texts; and the *septuagint*, *chaldee*, *latin* and *english* versions of the Old Testament; and of the New, the *greek* text, with the *latin*, *syriac*, and *english* versions. Various readings are to accompany each column, either on the same page, or at the end of the volume.—Such is the author's plan, of which he has given two specimens, one from the Old Testament, and one from the New. On both which we will make a few observations.

In the first place, we dislike the arrangement, particularly in the first specimen. We think the samaritan text should be printed where the english version stands, and not at the bottom of two continued pages, which disjoins it from its rival text, and gives an odd appearance to the pages. The method of Kennicott cannot be improved upon.

Secondly, although we deem the vowel points a novel invention, and of small real utility, yet we would advise our editor to admit them into his hebrew text, at least, for the sake of those who have been accustomed to read by them, and of whom some may think them, in some degree, essential to the language.

Thirdly, we see no need for the english column, as every biblical student is supposed to be furnished with an english Bible, independently of the Polyglott.

Fourthly, the greek type in the first specimen is, in our estimation, by far too small, as well as the latin; though this, perhaps, to many will not appear a great defect.

Fifthly, we wish the syriac version to replace the english, and not the latin vulgate, which is almost as easily to be had as an english version.

Sixthly, although we have no great objection to the new punctuation in the samaritan text and chaldee version, we are of opinion, that the mark used by Mr. P. will at first appear uncouth to most readers; we would therefore, with Houbigant, adopt in its room the common point (.), which, with the same variation of place, as it has in the
greek

greek punctuation, might be quite sufficient for all the oriental dialects; and, having neither a right side nor a left, would make no difference to the eye in the text of any language.

Lastly, with respect to the greek accents, we are of opinion, that not only the septuagint version, but also the text of the New Testament, would be better without them. The Complutensian edition has neither accents nor spirits; and, for that very reason, has a more respectable air, and more resembles the ancient mss. from which it was printed, and on which it's types were formed.

For the rest, although we have no great hopes, that Mr. P. will, in these times, meet with sufficient encouragement to prosecute his very laudable design, we must applaud his intentions, and heartily wish him success.

E.

ART. XIII. *A Reply to the Rev. R. Churton*, from Francis Eyre, of Warkworth, Esq. 8vo. 494 pages. Price 7s. in boards. Coghlan. 1798.

THE rector of Middleton Cheney had attacked the catholic church, and endeavoured to establish the pretensions of the church of England to an uninterrupted succession of divinely appointed teachers and priests, from the apostles. To his reasonings, on this head, and his abuse of the catholic church, the learned and ingenious author of this volume here offers a powerful reply. On the subject of an unbroken succession of bishops, our author observes,

P. 43.—‘The memorable year 1559 first then set a precedent in the christian church of the civil magistrate’s interference with *the power of the keys*, and not only the ten then vacant bishopricks, but also the sixteen full sees (Llandaff excepted) were supplied with new bishops. The court of high commission was empowered by the queen to suspend, or deprive such clergymen as were unworthy, and to put others into their places, to proceed against such as were obdurate by imprisonment, church censure, &c. The sixteen bishops were, for their refusal of the oath of supremacy, all put into prison. And in that same year new bishops were in a new manner appointed to all the sees, except Llandaff, bishop Kitchen having taken the oath, and those of York and Durham, which were only disposed of in the year 1561.

‘I presume, sir, that you will not deny, that these new appointments of bishops were different from the appointment of their predecessors in every essential requisite to the validity of the collation of *spiritual jurisdiction, mission, or authority*. Which of the two were more conformable with the practice, spirit and principles of the catholic church, we shall presently examine. I now only require the concession of the difference. That difference imports a novelty, which commenced in the year 1559; and bishop Pearson says, as we have seen, *whatsoever is new is none*.

‘I know not to what account to place the uniform and studied silence both of yourself and most, if not all of your predecessors in writing histories, defences and apologies of the reformation, upon this fundamental basis of its justification. For as you so triumphantly boast of deriving both your *office and authority* by an *unbroken chain of bishops similarly appointed from those who were constituted by the apostles, as the apostles were by Christ himself*, it was surely incumbent upon you to
show

shew that your bishops were *similarly* appointed by their predecessors both mediate and immediate.

And on the same subject he further observes,

P. *44.—‘ I must moreover presume, sir, from your express doctrine concerning the necessity of an unbroken chain of *authority and jurisdiction*, as well as of *order*, that had you undertaken as bishop Burnet did to favour the public with a history of the reformation, you would have traced the junction of the link of *authority or mission* at this period because of the influence it “ hath upon all the *jurisdiction or mission* that hath since that time been derived down in this church.” You would then have shewn there was “ no infraction and breaking in upon that order, which Christ hath established, and for more than seventeen hundred years preserved in his church;” that Parker, from whom the rest of the inferior bishops received this *mission or jurisdiction*, was *not* himself “ publicly appointed by those who in the very act of appointing exceeded their commission, and *exercised authority that was never given them.*” You would no doubt, sir, have informed your readers and a large part of an ignorant and doubtful public from what source, by what means, and upon what title *Barlow, Scory, Coverdale and Hodgkins*, or any of them were enabled to grant this metropolitan *authority, mission or jurisdiction* to Parker over the province of Canterbury. Not one of the four had at the time any *authority or jurisdiction* over any part of the church of Christ, that was either situated in England, or elsewhere throughout the universe. Whence then did they derive their power of conferring jurisdiction? Whence their particular commission *quoad hoc*? If indeed they were themselves of the episcopal order, they could *validly* have consecrated *Parker*, and have raised him to the episcopal dignity; but he would still have remained a bishop without a flock. No christian would have owed him obedience, because he would have wanted lawful *authority*. And those could not confer it, who wanted it themselves.’

Upon the necessity of the testimony of the universal church, without which no part of the sense of Scripture, or even what is Scripture, can ever be settled, in the opinion of our author, he makes the following striking observations.

P. 170.—‘ He [the man who rejects the testimony of the catholic church] will be forced to do all this by his own private examination of all these *versions, records, writings of the universal church*. Do you think, sir, that such an attempt would be possible, and that it could ever be carried into effect? I will suppose a man gifted with all the endowments of nature beyond Solomon, with a mind improved to the highest pitch of cultivation, reading, collating, and digesting the sublime truths contained in the Scriptures, from Genesis to the Revelations, yet uninformed of which particular books are deemed canonical by the catholic and which by the protestant church. I will suppose him conversant with every language, through which have been transmitted any documents of knowledge, learning and science; his memory stored with every historical fact; his judgment quick, penetrating and solid; finally, his will devotedly bent upon the discovery of truth. I maintain that with all these natural aids and powers he would still be absolutely incapable of assuring himself or others that a single page of the whole was actually inspired by the Deity; in that sense of inspiration under which a true christian holds all the canonical books of the

Old and New Testament to have been written by the sacred penmen. He would be absolutely incapable of discovering by the power of his intellectual faculties, that the epistle of St. Jude (for example) which you reject as apocryphal, was in reality not inspired any more than that of St. James, which you admit as canonical, was written by the immediate inspiration of the Holy Ghost. For this reason do I presume that St. Augustin (whom you appeal to so often) declared that he would not believe the gospels themselves, if the authority of the church did not oblige him to it. And though he lived in the dusky twilight of the fourth century, we may suppose he understood the letter, spirit, sense, harmony, authority and sublimity of the Scriptures, as well as the rector of Middleton-Cheney in the meridian glow of this *enlightened* age. Yet after all, we see him positively declare that he would not believe them, if there were not an incontrovertible authority to coerce his assent.

‘Hence if we come to reflect that God has imposed upon all mankind indiscriminately one common duty of submitting to, or believing in all the articles of revelation contained in the Scripture; that to all he has holden out the same motives of faith; to all the same threats of punishment for infidelity; does it not necessarily follow, that to all he afforded the same means, the same rules, the same grounds to ascertain and build their faith upon?’

In our opinion this learned and able catholic has clearly shown, that the church of England can be defended only upon the dissenting principle of the right of *private judgment*, which is the judgment of *every individual*, and consequently absolutely inconsistent with any *ecclesiastical authority*. Whatever be the opinion of the reader upon the subjects in dispute between Mr. Churton and Mr. Eyre, we think, upon the superiority of Mr. E.’s talents, there can but be one opinion; he is a very learned theologian, and wields the weapons of controversy with a giant’s hand.

ART. XIV. *Strictures upon the Reply of Mr. A. Fuller, to Mr. Kentish’s Discourse, entitled “The moral Tendency of the genuine Christian Doctrine.”* By the Author of that Discourse. 12mo. 63 pages. Price 1s. Johnson. 1798.

WE are grieved to see this controversy continued. It is impossible to settle it: and Mr. Fuller did not discover any judgment in first attempting to appeal to the *practical effect* of the doctrines of Calvin and Socinus. We think, if this argument must be pursued, it would be best to examine the conduct of the individuals Calvin and Socinus; for, as they were founders of sects, and framers of systems, it is probable, that their respective systems more exclusively influenced them, than their nominal followers, whose attention is, perhaps, little occupied by any religious system. If Calvin and Socinus pass before us, we confess our choice is made, for we follow not the shadow of a murderer. We believe all sects have cause to be ashamed of one half of their numbers; and, were the lives of the sectaries conformable to the doctrines common to them all, they would indeed all have cause to glory. The controversy is vexatious and fruitless. Until Mr. Fuller can produce better characters among his friends than Biddle, Lardner, and Jebb, we think, that he should dispute with less arrogance, and conclude with less authority. These strictures are neatly written, and discover that Mr. K. is animated by a sober and modest spirit of inquiry.

ART.

ART. XV. *The Lawfulness of defensive War upon Christian Principles impartially considered.* By a Clergyman of the Church of England. 12mo. 36 pages. Price 6d. Darton and Co. 1798.

THIS clergyman appears to be animated by a true spirit of peace, and love of the Gospel. His object is to prove, that war in all cases whatever is *unlawful*. This is, indeed, a nice question, which has engaged the attention of many. It is certain, that the Gospel *appears* to inculcate the doctrine insisted upon in this pamphlet; but, if a *few* only in the world were to *act* upon this doctrine, they must be destroyed, and then the question is, whether the christian doctrine impose the obligation upon it's advocates to submit to *destruction* in this world. Indeed this is no mighty matter to him, who has no doubt of future "glory, honour, and immortality." We give the author credit for the best intention in the world; and of his arguments we have not learned to speak with contempt.

ART. XVI. *Six Sermons preached before the Right Hon. Brook Watson, Lord Mayor of the City of London.* By G. S. Townley, M. A. 8vo. 131 pages. Price 3s. boards. Rivingtons.

THESE sermons are neither brilliant nor vulgar; they seldom either rise above, or sink below a happy mediocrity. In proof of our opinion, we adduce the following specimen: P. 73.

' The rule of life laid down in the New Testament is perfect: its precepts are intelligible to all capacities; not involved in subtlety and intricacy, as were those enjoined by some ancient moralists, but delivered in simplicity and truth: to be approved, they demand only a candid examination: to be followed, "an honest and good heart:" calculated for all ranks and degrees of men, for all people, nations and languages, they are designed to regulate, not merely the external act, but the thoughts and intent of the heart; and to secure more than present comfort, even future blessedness to every faithful disciple of Christ. There is no necessity of being deeply read in the schools of philosophy to ascertain our duty in its three great branches: with reasonable attention the illiterate may be well acquainted with christian obligations; while the intelligent will find in the gospel dispensation truths sufficient to exercise the most profound energies of the mind; and the "pure in heart" will discover the sublimest motives and encouragements to "go on unto perfection." The motives to moral obedience, laid down by heathen philosophers, bear no comparison with those presented in the Gospel. Their rules for the general conduct of life were seldom enforced by higher sanctions than expedience, or present satisfaction. On the principles of the stoics the exercise of many social virtues was absolutely excluded: considering all actions as determined by irresistible destiny, they inculcated a perfect indifference to every event: by looking on death as a total and eternal extinction, they robbed the heart of *hope*, man's greatest consolation, and removed the natural dread of *suicide*, man's greatest guilt. But the motives presented in the Gospel are adapted both to secure the general interests of society, and to comfort the heart under trouble: they "make the christian patient in tribulation," in proportion as they afford him the best grounds for "rejoicing in hope:" they fortify his mind against the evils of life, by inculcating a principle not to be traced in all the wisdom of ages—"be not overcome of evil, but overcome evil with good:" they make him rise superior to selfish

affections, and give a check to malevolent perturbations, by commanding—"if thine enemy hunger, feed him; if he thirst, give him drink:" they impress upon his heart universal charity, as the very bond of peace and of all virtues, as "the more excellent way," as "greater than all faith"—"though I speak with the tongues of men and of angels, and have not charity, I am become as sounding brass, or a tinkling cymbal:" above all, by exalting and purifying the soul, they render the christian meet to receive the completion of this heavenly promise—"thou shalt be recompensed at the resurrection of the just."

ART. XVII. *The Death of the Righteous precious in the Sight of God. A Sermon preached in the West Church, Aberdeen, April 17, 1796, on Occasion of the Death of the very Reverend Dr. George Campbell, late Principal and Professor of Divinity in Marischal College.* By W. L. Brown, D. D. Principal of Marischal College. 8vo. 31 pages. Price 1s. Aberdeen, Brown; London, Robintons. 1796.

WE confess ourselves disappointed by this discourse. We think every funeral sermon ought to be a biographical sketch of the life of the deceased. Far from thinking it either wise or useful to pronounce mere funeral panegyrics, we hold in contempt the opinion so often expressed, that in funeral sermons little or no notice should be taken of the dead. The worthless ought not to be honoured by such sermons, and the lives of the distinguished and the good ought to be delineated, the particulars of them reported with critical exactness, and the living instructed by the conduct, correctly described, of those who are no more. What will the biographer of Dr. Campbell learn from this discourse? Nothing, but that he was a minister, a tutor, a writer, and a worthy moral man. Indeed this is inexcusable. Dr. Campbell was worthy of a better pencil, and Dr. B. is worthy of reproof for not furnishing us with a likeness of this able and distinguished man.

ART. XVIII. *True Patriotism. A Sermon preached in Aid of the Voluntary Contributions for the Defence of the Country, March 11, 1798, in the Parish of St. Andrew, Wardrobe, &c.* By W. Goode, M. A. 8vo. 32 pages. Price 1s. Rivingtons. 1798.

THIS is a very loyal discourse, in which the pious author enumerates our blessings as a nation; among which we did not remark the increase of our taxes, and the extension of our laws of treason. To defend our country is laudable; and for her peace, liberty, and happiness we feel ourselves constantly anxious; but it ill becomes the ministers who voluntarily plunged us into this war, who accompanied it's commencement with the language of triumph, menace, and insult unexampled in our history; it ill becomes these men and their friends now to talk of Providence, and the malice of our foe, as if that foe had become such of his own will, and contrary to their best endeavours to live in peace with him and all nations. They who were from the first the enemies of this most unjust and unnecessary war are entitled to implore the protection of the Deity, and to them we look for the defence of our country against all her enemies foreign and domestic.

B. A.

ART.

ART. XIX. *Moral Contrasts: or the Power of Religion, exemplified under different Characters*, by William Gilpin, Prebendary of Salisbury, and Vicar of Boldre, in New Forest. 12mo. 226 pages. Lymington, Rutter; London, Cadell and Davies. 1798.

FROM the success of a little work, which Mr. Gilpin drew up some time ago, under the title of 'John Trueman and Richard Atkins,' contrasting, for the instruction particularly of the lower people, the characters of a virtuous and a vicious man, he was prompted to the publication of the present performance, which pursues the same plan, and is adapted to the higher orders of society. Mr. Willoughby and sir James Leigh are neighbouring gentlemen of large fortunes: the education of the one varies as much from that of the other, as the generosity, temperance, and economy of the former, differ from the selfishness, libertinism, and extravagance of the latter. To improve the contrast, and throw a still stronger light on the power of religion, Mr. G. has annexed some interesting memoirs of John Wilmot, earl of Rochester, chiefly extracted from a book, entitled "Some Passages of the Life and Death of John, Earl of Rochester, written by his own Direction on his Death bed, by Gilbert Burnet, Bishop of Salisbury." Some anecdotes, illustrative of the same subject, are also added of Naimbanna, a young african prince, who was sent into England by the Sierra Leone company, to be instructed in the christian religion.

This little work, without displaying much genius or imagination—and Mr. G. requires not a publication of this sort to attest, that he possesses them both—may be perused with advantage by that class of young persons to whom it is more particularly addressed.

M. D. M.

TACTICS.

ART. XX. "*Pro Aris & Focis.*" *Considerations of the Reasons that exist for reviving the Use of the Long-Bow with the Pike, in Aid of the Measures brought forward by his Majesty's Ministers for the Defence of the Country.* By Richard Oswald Mason, Esq. 8vo. 59 pages. Price 3s. 6d. Egerton. 1798.

MR. MASON thinks, that the rivalry and jealousy of France are not immediately connected with the form of it's government, but would be nearly the same whether under a republican or a monarchical regimen. He infers, therefore, that we should ever be prepared against her efforts, and seems to think, that the bow and the pike, two simple and cheap instruments, are admirably calculated for defensive operations. With Scotland against them, and Ireland of no assistance, the english 'ten several times, successfully invaded France*, once brought it to the brink of ruin, once conquered it, made one of it's monarchs prisoner, and another tributary.' All our achievements in that country are attributed to the use of the long-bow, for which we are allowed to be admirably fitted as a nation, on account of our size and muscular strength; but unless our enemies can be prevailed upon to adopt this weapon also, we apprehend, that fire arms will still

* In 1339, 1346, 1355, 1359, 1415, 1417, 1421, 1475, 1513, 1544.

be resorted to in modern warfare. It is but fair, however, to attend to what the author says in favour of the revival of the ancient system.

* The causes to which are attributed the disuse of the bow, are supposed to arise from the power and effect of fire arms being little known on their first introduction, but conceived of more than they really possessed; an opinion which, heightened by the fire and noise attending their discharge, induced the archers to distrust their bows, from esteeming them of not sufficient reach as to put the man on equality with those arms of a greater power of range, and in consequence the change took place, in order to give confidence. But certainly could our ancestors have witnessed the fruitless long continued firing of musketry (after its being brought to it's highest improvement) in the actions of hours, even days in modern war, with the little comparative loss to what was sustained when archery was used*, they would not have been so readily, from prejudice, out of conceit with their famous weapon, but it would have remained in estimation to the present time.

* It was rarely necessary for the archers to empty their quivers to obtain the most memorable victories; a few discharges, well directed, were sufficient to break the best troops, and that in times when the strongest armour was worn to prevent their effect. At Agincourt, one discharge of the archers, under the duke of York, overthrew 2400 men a arms at the onset of the battle. So conquering a weapon was the bow, that the enemy could scarcely either fight or fly; so that beside the carnage, the english have taken prisoners, as at Poitiers, double the number of their whole army.

* In these times, the continued roar, and menacing danger of cannon and musketry, presents to the soldier nothing but the idea of present death, although he is afterwards surprised at the loss being so comparatively small to what imagination had heightened the danger. But notwithstanding this apparent terror of the modern arms, yet there never has existed real cause for the archer to distrust his bow against small arms; on the contrary, the reverse is evident from reason and demonstration. In the present time, the revival of it's use must be attended with the greatest success and advantage, as it cannot but be admitted we possess equal powers to it's efficient use, from our personal strength and activity. I shall therefore describe the arming of the archer, which must certainly appear to carry great superiority and efficiency.

* The archer completely armed, carries his long-bow and quiver of twenty-four sheaf arrows, the bow proportioned to his strength, and proved in it's power and elasticity†. These, when not using them, are

* * Respecting the great inefficiency attending the firing of musketry in modern war, and the consequent expence attending it, it may be judged of by what is stated by marshal count Saxe, in his memoirs, that on a computation of the balls used in a day's action, not one of upwards of eighty-five took place.* The authour supposes, that at the battle of Tournay, in 1794, 128 balls disabled only one object.

* † The ascertaining the power of the bow, and proving its elasticity by weighing it, is the invention of the ingenious Mr. Thomas Waring.

flung

slung at his back : he is also provided with a pike, about ten feet in length, which, when in action, and using his bow, he strikes beside him, or grounds, through the files ; and when necessary, to prevent the breaking in of cavalry, he plants in front ; it is supported by two spikes, which fall from the staff of the pike, and when extended, support it presented, as high as the breast of a horse, or middle of a man. Two files of the archers thus plant their pikes, when so attacked, and as they oppose a defence not to be broken in upon, they can, at the same time, pour so dreadful and offensive a shower of arrows, as to destroy, wound, and throw into disorder, any assailants. When acting on the offensive, they advance under continual well-directed flights at intervals, and then charge with their spears, if necessary, which, being several feet longer than the musket and bayonet, though not so heavy and unwieldy, are far more formidable. The archer also carries a broad sword for close action. Though so well armed, yet none of his weapons are in the way of the other. In point of defence, if necessary, without any inconvenience, he wears a breast plate, musket proof, similar to the present austrian cuirassiers ; (the archers always were so equipped formerly) but in all cases he should wear the helmet, as a more convenient and secure covering for the head.'

Although we entertain doubts as to the efficacy of the measure here proposed, yet we most readily acknowledge the public spirit of the author of this ingenious treatise. o.

NOVELS.

ART. XXI. *Family Secrets*. By Mr. Pratt. In 5 Vols. 12mo. 2013 pages. Price 1l. 12s. in boards. The second Edition, carefully revised. Longman. 1798.

MR. PRATT has certainly improved his production by various judicious alterations, and by contracting it within a somewhat narrower compass. The early call of the public for a second edition, though not always a proof of the intrinsic value of a work, at least affords the author a flattering testimony of popular esteem. We are yet of opinion, that too great prolixity in performances of this nature operates generally to their disadvantage, it being scarcely possible to keep up, through a long series, the spirit and interest requisite to give life to fictitious narration : neither, in the various incidents necessary to prevent languor, and to beguile the reader through a voluminous work of fancy, is it easy to preserve that chaste simplicity of action and character, so indispensable to the satisfaction of the critical reader of taste. Something of this we are still sensible of in the *Family Secrets* ; the incongruities pointed out in our remarks on the former edition do not appear to us to be, in the present, materially obviated : we are still of opinion, that more perseverance, than generally falls to the lot of persons in the habit of novel-reading, is necessary to carry them, without lassitude, through the work, even in it's present improved condition : yet, there are certainly parts where exquisite touches of nature and feeling may repay the time and labour of the reader.

ARCHITECTURE.

ART. XXII. *Specimens of Gothic Ornaments, selected from the Parish Church of Lavenham, in Suffolk, on forty Plates.* 4to. 18s. small, 1l. 5s. large paper. Taylor. 1796.

WE have examined all the plates with great satisfaction, and believe, that both artist and *amateur* will be highly gratified with the view of them. It affords uncommon pleasure to think, that, in so remote a period, one of the greatest peers of the kingdom should have cordially united with an opulent family of manufacturers, to rear this monument of gothic architecture.

It will be necessary to insert the advertisement prefixed, by way of explanation:

‘Of the subject of the following work, it may be proper to observe, Lavenham is a market and clothing town, near Long Melford, in the county of Suffolk. The church, situated on a rising ground, is justly esteemed the finest specimen of gothic architecture in the county. It was built by the *Veres*, earls of Oxford, in conjunction with the *Springes*, a rich clothing family, about the close of the fifteenth century, and the pews of these families are finished pieces of gothic work, in wood: the Oxford pew is now much decayed. The porch adorned with the *Vere* quarterings, and erected by John the fourteenth earl, before 1529, is an elegant building, as is the tower or steeple, 141 feet high, on which are the arms of his predecessors. The church is 156 feet long, and 68 feet wide. The windows, and various parts of the church, are adorned with many coats of arms. It is built chiefly with free stone, the rest is of flint stone. The ornaments are all elegantly cut, and boldly relieved.

‘These sketches, taken about 1790, originally for the amusement of an artist who then resided at Lavenham, when the parts generally were in good repair, are now offered to the public, as a set of choice examples of gothic ornaments, which may tend to guide the taste, and form the judgment of those, who follow this style of architecture, professionally, or as an amusement.’

S.

NATURAL HISTORY.

ART. XXIII. *The Natural History of the Year; being an Enlargement of Dr. Aikin's Calendar of Nature.* By Arthur Aikin. 12mo. 195 p. Price 2s. 6d. sewed. Johnson. 1798.

THE rising generation will be much indebted to the various, the elegant, and useful acquirements of Dr. Aikin; he has frequently employed his time and his talents, talents of a very superiour order, in the composition of books for the improvement of young persons; and he always contrives to deck Instruction with so fascinating an air, and so inviting a smile, that every one loves her, who is introduced by him. Mr. Arthur Aikin appears to be treading in the same honourable steps, which his father has trodden before him. In the present enlargement of the Calendar of Nature, Mr. A. has inserted some new articles, and enlarged some of the old ones.

Advertis.

Advertis. p. vi.—‘ For this purpose recourse has been had to Mr. Pennant’s valuable Zoological works, to Bomare’s Dictionary of Natural History, and to the admirable Natural History of Selborne, by the late Mr. White. Other writers have been occasionally consulted, and a few circumstances are inserted for which the editor is himself personally answerable.’

We have seldom been more gratified than in the perusal of this little volume; or have we ever met with any thing better calculated, in our opinion, for the attainment of it’s object, namely, to initiate young persons into the study, and inspire them with the love of natural history.

POETRY. THE DRAMA.

ART. XXIV. *The Vision; A Poem on the Union of Russia and Prussia against Poland; with other Pieces, the Effusions of a young Mind.* 8vo. 134 pages. Price 4s. Bath, Cruttwell; London, Dilly. 1797.

THIS volume is of various merit: the poem on the union of Russia and Prussia against Poland is written in a strain of laudable indignation against the infamous partition of the last unhappy country: it is but little adorned, however, with the graces of poetical composition; the imagery is scanty, and the phraseology diffuse. With pleasure we remark our young author’s improvement in his progress: his translation of sir William Jones’s Chrysis and Euryalus is easy and elegant; and three or four little poems, addressed to his father and his brother, display a very amiable and affectionate disposition. The following few lines, ‘ on the melancholy fate of a young man who drowned himself in consequence of an unsuccessful attachment,’ afford a favourable specimen. P. 41.

‘ Say who is he, whose slow steps sadly move
Along yon stream, with gloomy willows hung?
’Tis he! —the burning blush, and faltering step,
The inward conflict of his soul betray;
And disappointment marks his faded brow.
Sudden he starts! with wild despairing gaze
He eyes the fullen flood; as though some deed
Of dreadful purpose at his labouring breast
Lay yet in secret: then a lingering glance
On the fair face of things he casts around;
A glance of sickening hope; as anxious yet
One farewell look to take, then part for ever.
Or now in speechless agony he bends
His head to earth: O thou, Eternal Power!
Is there among the treasures of thy wrath,
A dart, of force to bow the soul to earth,
Equal to hopeless Love?
Is then the faithful heart condemn’d to mourn,
To vent its sorrows to the warring winds,
And tell the un pitying elements its grief?
Or brood in silence o’er departed joys,
Lost to itself, and to the world around?

Shall

Shall thus the blooming hours of youth decay,
 When Fancy's airy hand should lead the dance,
 When to the cheering sound of Joy's shrill pipe,
 The spirits in wild extacy should bound?
 But stay, rash youth! yet thy foul purpose stay;
 Nor plunge into that fathomless abyss
 Whence there is no return!—think, ere too late,
 That Heaven, to recompense thy many trials,
 Pleas'd with thy courage, constancy, and truth,
 May soften yet the fair one's alien heart,
 And gild with rapture's beams thy future hours:
 Then on the bosom of thy long-fought Love,
 Forget the pangs of hopeless passion past!
 But ah! 'tis done.—And now the whelming wave
 O'erpow'rs his last faint struggle: all is o'er:
 And the wild uproar of contending passions
 Is hush'd for ever.—If in other worlds
 Despair may hope for pardon—be it thine!

ART. XXV. *Blank Verse*, by Charles Lloyd and Charles Lamb.
 12mo. 95 pages. Price 2s. 6d. Arch. 1798.

WE may be very deficient in taste: but the whining monotonous melancholy of these pages is to us extremely tiresome. Mr. Lloyd and Mr. Lamb shed such a sepulchral gloom over every object, and their poetry is such an unvaried murmur, that, so far from sympathizing in their poetical sorrows, we feel a much stronger propensity to smile, than we do to weep. Mr. Lamb has evinced the warmth of his domestic affections on a former occasion; the same amiable glow is observable in the poems before us. The following extract is a favourable specimen; it is the production of Mr. Lamb. P. 92.

‘ COMPOSED AT MIDNIGHT.

‘ From broken visions of perturbed rest
 I wake, and start, and fear to sleep again.
 How total a privation of all sounds,
 Sights and familiar objects, man, bird, beast,
 Herb, tree, or flow'r, and prodigal light of heav'n!
 'Twere some relief to catch the drowsy cry
 Of the mechanic watchman, or the noise
 Of revel, reeling home from midnight cups.
 Those are the moanings of the dying man,
 Who lies in the upper chamber; restless moans,
 And interrupted only by a cough
 Consumptive, torturing the wasted lungs.
 So in the bitterness of death he lies,
 And waits in anguish for the morning's light.
 What can that do for him, or what restore?
 Short taste, faint sense, affecting notices,
 And little images, of pleasures past,
 Of health, and active life—(health not yet slain,
 Nor the other grace of life, a good name, sold
 For sin's black wages.) On his tedious bed

He

He writhes, and turns him from th' accusing light,
 And finds no comfort in the sun, but says,
 "When night comes, I shall get a little rest."
 Some few groans more, death comes, and there an end.
 'Tis darkness and conjecture all beyond;
 Weak nature fears, though charity must hope;
 And fancy, most licentious on such themes,
 Where decent reverence well had kept her mute,
 Hath o'erstock'd hell with devils, and brought down
 By her enormous fables, and mad lies,
 Discredit on the Gospel's serious truths,
 And salutary fears. The man of parts,
 Poet, or prose declaimer, on his couch
 Lolling, like one indifferent, fabricates
 A heaven of gold, where he, and such as he,
 Their heads encompassed with crowns, their heels
 With fine wings garlanded, shall tread the stars
 Beneath their feet, heaven's pavement, far remov'd
 From damned spirits, and the torturing cries
 Of men, his brethren, fashion'd of the earth,
 As he was, nourish'd with the selfsame bread,
 Belike his kindred or companions once,
 Through everlasting ages now divorced,
 In chains, and savage torments, to repent
 Short years of folly on earth. Their groans unheard
 In heaven, the faint nor pity feels, nor care,
 For those thus sentenc'd—pity might disturb
 The delicate sense, and most divine repose,
 Of spirits angelical. Blessed be God,
 The measures of his judgments are not fix'd
 By man's erroneous standard. He discerns
 No such inordinate difference and vast
 Betwixt the sinner and the saint, to doom
 So disproportion'd fates. Compar'd with him,
 No man on earth is holy call'd: they best
 Stand in his sight approv'd, who at his feet
 Their little crowns of virtue cast, and give
 To him of his own works the praise, his due.'

ART. XXVI. *An Elegy to the Memory of the Right Hon. Edmund Burke.*

By the Rev. John Chetwood Eustace. 4to. 15 pages. Price 1s.
 Rivingtons. 1798.

THIS tribute to the genius and eloquence of a departed statesman, if not distinguished by glowing and luxuriant imagery, is solemn, elegant, and we doubt not but sincere. The author leaves, as we do, his readers to judge of the propriety of his concluding request, which, however, we may be permitted to say, appears highly reasonable. P. 13.

'Then, Britain, come, in all the pomp of woe,
 The last sad tribute to thy guardian pay;—
 'Tis public virtue bids thy sorrows flow,
 And, weeping, points to yonder sacred clay.

' Say

‘ Say, shall thy patriot, with the crowd unknown,
In yon neglected fane, unhonor’d lie?
No bronze present his form? No sculptured stone
Direct the lonely pilgrim’s searching eye?

‘ Behold yon awful towers, where greatness sleeps,
Where heroes, sages, saints, repose in state,
Where, o’er their dust, thy grateful genius weeps,
And shields their fame against the stroke of fate.

‘ O! thither bear his hallow’d dust—there raise
The pile sepulchral sacred to his fame:
There let the Muse announce to future days,
How Britain honors BURKE’s immortal name.

‘ In act to speak, there let thy patriot stand,
Awful as when by guardian Gods inspired,
His glowing accents rous’d thy slumb’ring land,
Brac’d ev’ry nerve, and ev’ry bosom fired.’

ART. XXVII. *The Wild Huntsman’s Chase. From the German of Bürger, Author of Lenore.* 4to. 15 pages. Price 1s. Low. 1798.

THE popularity of *Lenore* has excited an interest towards any ballad of Bürger: the present is founded on a legend, which is credited in some parts of Germany.

Advertisement.—‘ The cottager relates, that, in the days of Charlemagne, the wild grave, or earl warden of the chase, heedless of the mischief he occasioned, or of the profanation of the sabbath, pursued his sports at all seasons of the year. At length, after repeated warnings, he was overtaken by the vengeance of heaven, and punished in the manner here detailed. When the tempest, howling through the wide and gloomy forests of Germany, threatens the hut of the affrighted woodman with destruction, he often attributes it to the passage of the Wild Huntsman.’

We have not the original before us, but from the present translation it does not appear, that the “Huntsman’s Chase” is by any means equal to “*Lenore*.”

ART. XXVIII. *A Series of Plays: in which it is attempted to delineate the stronger Passions of the Mind. Each Passion being the Subject of a Tragedy and a Comedy.* 8vo. 411 pages. Price 6s. in boards. Cadell and Davies, London. 1798.

A TASK of such extremely difficult execution as the present, which requires such dignified talents, which demands so complete a knowledge of the springs of human action, and such a familiarity with every emotion of the heart, is very properly preceded by a ‘discourse,’ explanatory of the author’s design, and communicating ‘those ideas regarding human nature, as they in some degree affect almost every species of moral writings, but particularly the dramatic, which induced him to attempt it.’ Our author is not unconscious that this undertaking is most arduous, and he advances to it with becoming diffidence.

The present volume contains three plays:

r. 62.—‘ In the two first,’ says our author, ‘where love is the passion

passion under review, their relation to the general plan may not be very obvious. Love is the chief groundwork of almost all our tragedies and comedies, and so far they are not distinguished from others. But I have endeavoured in both to give an unbroken view of the passion from its beginning, and to mark it as I went along, with those peculiar traits which distinguish its different stages of progression. I have in both these pieces grafted this passion not on those open communicative impetuous characters, who have so long occupied the dramatic station of lovers, but on men of a firm, thoughtful, reserved turn of mind, with whom it commonly makes the longest stay, and maintains the hardest struggle.

The subject of the third play is Hatred. Thus it appears, that a very small part of the design is yet executed; but our author has anticipated and repelled the charge of precipitation, which will be brought against him for not having waited till a larger portion of his work could have been offered to the public, and particularly for having been so much in a hurry as to publish the third play without its companion. 'I do protest,' says he, 'in honest simplicity, it is distrust, and not confidence, that has led me, at this early stage of the undertaking, to bring it before the public.' We can readily credit him, being full well aware how extremely unpleasant it is to labour in uncertainty, and proceed in a long and difficult work, impressed with apprehension, that our labour is perhaps in vain.

Our author conceives the source of that interest, which we almost universally take in dramatic representations, whether of a tragic or comic nature, to be a sympathetic propensity strongly operating in our minds, and exercised more generally, and on much more ordinary occasions, than is commonly supposed. He imagines that every person, not absolutely deficient in intellect, is more or less occupied in tracing, among the individuals he converses with, the varieties of understanding and temper which constitute the characters of men. This, however, it is obvious must, in most instances, be an involuntary operation, and unattended with consciousness; it is, nevertheless, indicative of a natural sympathetic propensity, a curiosity to discover the latent emotions of the mind, to observe their influence over the individual, and the influence of the individual over them. On this principle may be accounted for the general interest which is excited towards a public execution: it is not, that we receive a pleasure from the sufferings of a sentient being; but we see a man, a fellow-creature, bearing himself up under extreme adversity; we see him struggling under the most terrible and torturing apprehensions; if near enough, the most stupid of us would mark the expression of his face, and eagerly observe whether it bespeaks composure or timidity; we should almost fancy ourselves able to read his innocence, or detect his guilt; and even at a considerable distance from the victim, we should mark whether he steps firmly, whether the motions of his body denote agitation or calmness; and if the wind does but ruffle his garment, we shall, even from that change upon the outline of his distant figure, read some expression connected with his dreadful situation. 'This must be the powerful incentive which makes us press forward to behold what we shrink from, and wait with trembling apprehension for what we dread.'

Man is the object of no less curiosity, however, where the agitation of his mind is less obviously connected with external circumstances; that

that is to say, where the evil he contends with are the strong passions which are working in his own bosom. To this sympathetic curiosity of our nature,—a curiosity implanted by the Almighty most wisely within us! for the anatomist of another's mind learns, like the anatomist of another's body, the texture and configuration of his own:—‘it is to this sympathetic curiosity of our nature, exercised upon mankind in great and trying occasions, and under the influence of the stronger passions, when the grand, the generous, the terrible attract our attention far more than the base and depraved, that the high and powerfully tragic of every composition, is addressed.’

The grand secret, then, of moral composition, is an appeal to this sympathetic propensity; where successfully made; it delights the imagination, and deeply impresses the memory. It is in this fascinating and delicate delineation of nature, that our author thinks the generality of our dramatic poets have so much failed.

P. 32.—‘Neglecting the boundless variety of nature, certain strong outlines of character, certain bold features of passion, certain grand vicissitudes, and striking dramatic situations, have been repeated from one generation to another: whilst a pompous and solemn gravity, which they have supposed to be necessary for the dignity of tragedy, has excluded almost entirely from their works those smaller touches of nature, which so well develope the mind; and by showing men in their hours of state and exertion only, they have consequently shown them imperfectly.’

So just are many of the observations in this ‘introductory discourse,’ such beautiful and familiar illustrations attend them, and so attentively does the author appear to have studied the anatomy of the human mind, that we were led to expect in the perusal of his dramas, and we have not been disappointed, many beautiful traits of character, many faithful and affecting touches of nature. It has been his object to introduce us to the very birth of the passion, which he selects as the subject of illustration; instead of partially representing it to us at one period only of it's growth, it has been his object to display the progress from it's primary germination to it's ‘full blown’ maturity. This, however, we think is not strictly the case in “Count Basil,” the first play of this series: when Rosinberg says to his friend, act II, scene 2,

‘And has the first look of a stranger's face
So far bewitch'd thee?’

Count Basil replies, to the astonishment of Rosinberg,

‘A stranger's face!
Long has she been the inmate of my breast!
‘The smiling angel of my nightly dreams.’

There does not appear to have been any necessity for tracing the birth of Basil's love to a circumstance which occurred two years before: it was not unnatural, that he should fall in love with Octavia at seeing her lead a splendid and a solemn procession to the shrine of Saint Francis, and bear offerings of gratitude for the recovery of her father from his bed of sickness; but Basil thus relates the origin of his passion:

P. 99.—‘Two years since,
When marching on the confines of this state,
We heard the distant music of the chace,
And trampling horses near; I turn'd to look,
And saw the loveliest sight of woman's form

That

That ever blest mine eyes. Her fiery steed,
Struck with the strange accoutrements of war,
Became unruly, and despis'd the rein.
I gently led him with his lovely charge
Past all the ranks: she thank'd me courteously;
Then, with the few companions of her sport,
Took to the woods again.'

If the danger of Octavia in this latter situation renders her interesting, she appears no less so from the amiable office which engages her in the former. The scene before us, therefore, is the revival of an old unextinguished passion, which for two whole years lay latent in the breast of Basil, concealed even from his most intimate and affectionate friend Rosinberg.

It is not necessary, that we should sketch for our readers the fables of these three plays; such a sketch would be meagre and uninteresting, and consequently most injurious to the author of them. Each has a studied simplicity of plot, lest the attention should be diverted from character to incident; in short, the sentiments, the imagery, the dialogue, every thing is kept in due subordination to the main design, namely, a faithful delineation of nature, a display of those delicate and faint tints, which characterise the different periods of passion, and of those 'less obtrusive but not less discriminating traits,' which mark it's actual operation, but which our dramatists have too frequently neglected to portray.

It is evident, that a long series of connected extracts would be necessary to afford our readers a correct idea of the success with which our author has laboured his point. Such a series, however, is incompatible with the nature of our work; we must satisfy ourselves with a short specimen, and take our leave of the author, with thanks for the high gratification he has afforded us, and an earnest wish, that he may conclude, with the same success that he has commenced, a regular delineation of those strong passions, which inhabit the human mind.

The following extract is selected from the "Tryal," a comedy, and the second play of the series.

R. 261. Act IV. Scene 2.—'Mr. WITHRINGTON'S house. AGNES discovered embroidering at a small table, HARWOOD standing by her, and hanging fondly over her as she works.

'Har. How pretty it is! Now you put a little purple on the side of the flower.

'Ag. Yes, a very little shade.

'Har. And now a little brown upon that.

'Ag. Even so.

'Har. And thus you work up and down, with that tiny needle of yours, till the whole flower is completed. (*Pauses, still looking at her working.*) Why, Agnes, you little witch! you're doing that leaf wrong.

'Ag. You may pick it out then, and do it better for me. I'm sure you have been idle enough all the morning, it is time you were employed about something.

'Har. And so I will. (*Sitting down by her, and taking hold of the work.*)

'Ag. (*Covering the flower with her hand*) O! no, no!

'Har. Take away that little perverse hand, and let me begin. (*Putting his hand upon hers.*)

'Ag. What a good for nothing creature you are! you can do nothing

thing yourself, and you will suffer nobody else to do any thing. I should have had the whole pattern finished before now, if you had not loitered over my chair so long.

* *Har.* So you can't work when I look over you? then I have some influence upon you? O you fly girl! you are caught in your own words at last.

* *Ag.* Indeed, Harwood, I wish you would go home again to your law-books and your precedent hunting; you have mispent a great deal of time here already.

* *Har.* Is it not better to be with you in reality than only in imagination? Ah! Agnes! you little know what my home studies are.—Law, said you! how can I think of law, when your countenance looks upon me from every black lettered page that I turn? When your figure fills the empty seat by my side, and your voice speaks to me in the very mid-day stillness of my chamber? Ah! my sweet Agnes! you will not believe what a foolish fellow I have been, since I first saw you.

* *Ag.* Nay, Harwood, I am not at all incredulous of the fact, it is only the cause of it which I doubt.

* *Har.* Saucy girl! I must surely be revenged upon you for all this.

* *Ag.* I am tired of this work. (*Getting up.*)

* *Har.* O! do not give over.—Let me do something for you—let me thread your needle for you—I can thread one most nobly.

* *Ag.* There then. (*Gives him a needle and silk.*)

* *Har.* (*Pretending to scratch her hand with it.*) So ought you to be punished. (*Threads it awkwardly.*)

* *Ag.* Ay, nobly done indeed! but I shall work no more to-day.

* *Har.* You must work up my needleful.

* *Ag.* I am to work a fool's cap in the corner by-and-by, I shall keep your needleful for that. I am going to walk in the garden.

* *Har.* And so am I.

* *Ag.* You are?

* *Har.* Yes, I am. Go where you will, Agnes, to the garden or the field, the city or the desert, by sea or by land, I must e'en go too. I will never be where you are not, but when to be where you are is impossible.

* *Ag.* O! there will be no getting rid of you at this rate, unless some witch will have pity upon me, and carry me up in the air upon her broomstick.

* *Har.* There, I will not pretend to follow you, but as long as you remain upon the earth, Agnes, hang me! if I can find in my heart to budge an inch from your side.

* *Ag.* You are a madman.

* *Har.* You are a forcerefs.

* *Ag.* You are an idler.

* *Har.* You are a little mouse.

* *Ag.* Come, come, get your hat then, and let us go. (*Aside, while he goes to the bottom of the stage for his hat.*) Bless me! I have forgot to be ill-humoured all this time. [EXIT hastily.]

ART. XXIX.—*Thalia to Eliza: a poetical Epistle from the Comic Muse to the Countess of D——, in which various eminent dramatic and political Characters are displayed.* 8vo. 32 pages. Price 1s. Richardsons. 1798.

THE Author of this epistle takes a retrospect of the countess of D——'s theatrical career, and sketches the characters of other dramatic performers, in verses remarkable neither for dullness nor animation.

D. M. M.

POLITICS. POLITICAL ECONOMY.

ART. XXX. *Tableau speculatif de l'Europe. A speculative View of Europe.* By Mr. Dumouriez. 12mo. 160 p. Pr. 3s. 6d. Published in February, 1798. No Printer's Name mentioned. Imported by De Boffe.

THE talents of Dumouriez are generally allowed; and every one acquainted either with his actions, or his writings, must acknowledge, that he is no common man. The present publication, although grossly defective in some points, has already acquired considerable celebrity; and as it treats of the dearest interests of our own, and all the other european states, naturally calls upon us for an analysis.

We are told, in the preliminary discourse, that the history of several antierior centuries does not present such an extraordinary series of events, as that of the period now under-discussion. The fate of nations was decided in 1797, 'by a single man, and in the twinkling of an eye.' Before the preliminary treaty of Léoben, D. thinks, that Buonaparte, notwithstanding his heroism, might have been shut up and famished on the mountains of Stiria, cut off from all intercourse with Italy, and forced to recommence the conquest of that country once more, had he ever been permitted to re-enter it. But it was the fortunate destiny of France to have infused 'a salutary terrour' into the cabinet of Vienna: this induced the emperor to make a precipitate peace, when a delay of a fortnight would inevitably have changed the face of his affairs. The retreat of the courageous archduke Charles to an impregnable camp (*une position inforçable*) on the banks of the Danube, whence he could have efficaciously protected the city of Vienna, added to the defensive dispositions made in that capital, in consequence of the able arrangements of general Mack, would have rendered an attack on it unsuccessful. Buonaparte, menaced on his two flanks, by the army of the Tyrol on his left, and the army of the insurrection of Hungary on his right, would have found himself destitute of provision and money, and nearly eighty leagues distant from Italy, with which country all communication would have been cut off, by the capture of Trieste, and the general insurrection of the republic of Venice.

It was *the system of partition*, we are here told, that brought on the present war, and this same system is likely to become the grand mean of procuring peace; 'for the french, enjoying the fatal good luck of being always victorious, have become conquerors, and forgetting the principles on which they founded their constitution, have adopted the system of political partition, which has been fashionable in Europe since 1772.'

Chap. i. *Austria*. Before the french revolution, Austria was the greatest power in Europe, in consequence of the hereditary dignity of the head of the empire, the strength of it's armies, the extent and position of it's states, and the influence of it's politics. It might have avoided the unfortunate war, in which it has been engaged against the french nation, but it's influence would not have been so decided in a mixed government, as under an unlimited monarchy. Austria, in consequence of this measure, has lost it's ancient inheritance of the Low Countries, which immediately connected it with France, Holland, and England; the fertile Lombardy, and it's influence in Italy, 'where a branch of it's house vegetates precariously at the head of a little state, which cannot fail to be absorbed in the democratic revolution.'

It has lost all communication with the Rhine, by the cession of anterior Austria to the duke of Modena; and by the dismemberment of the germanic body, it is about to lose the seemingly *ideal*, but in fact, *real* interest, attached to the imperial dignity. On the other hand, it has acquired a portion of Poland, the territorial dimensions of which are more than twice as extensive as the Low Countries, while, in point of population, the inhabitants are equal to one-third of that of Belgium. It meditates also to procure the archbishopric of Saltzburgh, and the course of the Inn and the Danube, from Donawerth, Ingolstadt, and Passau, to Vienna, which will add greatly to the strength and unity of it's hereditary states. Honour excepted, Austria has gained much by the present war. It's new acquisitions in Italy cover Hungary and Croatia, and present the means of vivifying the commerce of those charming provinces, which languish from the want of being able to export and import commodities. The greatest danger is on the side of Italy. The venetians, at present, consider the austrians as their deliverers; but that people will soon recollect, that they have been governed by a republican regimen for a thousand years, and will, in a short time, look on them as their tyrants. In fine, the possessions of the house of Austria in Italy are extremely precarious; and if the court of Vienna do not annihilate the cisalpine republic, Venice will be united, either *indivisibly* or *federally*, with that commonwealth.

Chap. ii. *Prussia*. The author here insinuates, that a *good understanding* prevails between France and Prussia, else the former would not have incorporated the duchy of Cleves, and the county of Meurs, with the 'great republic.' In return, the court of Berlin will be gratified with the city of Nuremberg, and some other of the shreds and remnants of the german empire. It would appear also, that a design exists, to deprive his britannic majesty of the electorate of Hanover; and it is insinuated, that one of his allies is to be his successor!

The greatest enemy of the king of Prussia is here said to be 'democracy,' and the latter will at length prevail, unless he fly to his tent, and exchange the character of a sovereign for that of a warrior. In short, we are given to understand, 'that the safety of Prussia, and her monarch, can be produced only by a general war,

war, or an universal peace with France,' the latter of which must be concluded on a fixed and immoveable basis.

Chap. III. *The German Empire.* The french revolution has unveiled the weakness of this gothic edifice; and a congress, 'which will cover the germanic body with eternal shame, while it seals it's destruction,' is now assembled at Rastadt.

Chap. IV. *Switzerland.* Switzerland, considered as 'the bulwark and the key of Germany,' when this chapter was written, has experienced all the effects of a sudden and complete revolution. It is but justice, however, to observe, that if the advice here given to the swiss, 'to increase their real force, by adding to the number of their citizens,' had been adopted, they might have avoided their fate. Mr. D. allows, that 'the remonstrances of the subjugated bailiwicks are just, and their opposition to the law of superiour force natural.'

Chap. V. *Italy.* Until the french revolution had crossed the Alps, the italians considered the republicans as so many madmen, who would soon be scourged into submission by their imperial and royal masters. But they no sooner beheld the king of Prussia courting a peace with the new commonwealth, Hesse, Saxony, and Swabia, successively detaching themselves from the germanic league, Spain from an enemy becoming an ally, the house of Savoy vanquished, Holland conquered and revolutionised, and the imperial armies fleeing before the conquering banners of their enemies, than they instantly changed their opinions, and attributed all these memorable events to the triumph of liberty. The following passage is worthy of notice.

'The fate of the cisalpine republic is still precarious. It depends on what may be determined at Rastadt. Should a general war take place, France, too much occupied with her own affairs, will be unable to afford her sufficient assistance; and the cisalpines will either voluntarily return to the austrian yoke, or be forced to succumb. The rest of Italy, in this case, will be preserved from democracy. Should peace, on the other hand, take place, the first war of the cisalpines will be against France herself; and it will originate in the resentment of the former, and the restless ambition of the latter.'

Chap. VI. *Turkey.* This chapter commences with a very extraordinary assertion, viz. 'that the revolution of Turkey is an unavoidable consequence of that of Italy.' The enfranchisement of the greeks, and the exile of the barbarous romans, with their fanaticism, despotism, and ignorance, into Asia, have been long the wish of philosophy.

Chap. VII. *Russia.* We are told, by D., that there is a great city in this empire, where the germs of republicanism are unfolding themselves. 'This city is Moscow; already the asylum of malcontents and critics, it will one day become the focus of revolution.'

Chap. VIII and IX. *Sweden and Denmark.* Sweden has three distinct and opposite interests. The first, which will be generally considered as whimsical, 'is to have no share in the contest, but to watch the progress of the revolutionary spirit, and to take advantage

advantage of it, as soon as it shall attack the empire of Russia, in order to shake off her slavish submission to the court of Petersburg, to recover her ancient boundaries, to extend them to the Neva, and by acquiring possession of the capital, to obtain the province of Livonia!

It is the policy of Denmark to prevent the invasion of England; for, in case of success, the toll of the Sound would be considered as 'a feudal claim,' and 'the turbulent and insatiable republicans' would domineer in Copenhagen, in the Baltic, and in the Elbe.

Chap. x. *England.* We are here told, what we hope and believe to be untrue: that the fate of Great Britain depends on the congress of Rastadt. That her interests are implicated in that event, can be readily supposed; but it is utterly impossible, that her independence can be affected by the partitionary spirit of either her enemies or her allies. The following passage is worthy of notice.

'In this bitter conflict between the french and english, the glory of the former has been more brilliant, as well as more difficult to acquire. The french have displayed greater courage, the english more address. While the latter had an excellent navy, the former had every thing to create. Had not the french been under the necessity of sustaining a general war, which employed all their talents, and all their population, they would, in a short time, have equalled, perhaps surpassed, the english, both in number of ships and sailors. Of this, two recent events are a sufficient proof. Lewis XIV, whose ambition aspired to universal glory, wished to have a navy, and, in a short time, he created one. Lewis XVI had occasion for ships of the line, in order to assist the americans: and, in two years, he increased their number to eighty. But as he then waged a coalition-war against England, he experienced all the misfortunes usually resulting from combined plans against an enemy, who possessed an unity of action, interest, and volition. The descent on England failed in 1779, in consequence of the dilatory movements of Spain. At another time, the defection of Holland frustrated all the operations. Cupidity and disunion occasioned the loss of a decisive battle; and all the efforts of the last king of France were unavailing.

'In the course of the present revolutionary war, the french marine has been completely disorganised. Twenty ships of war surrendered at Toulon have weakened, and two naval battles, destroyed it. All the genius, efforts, and courage of the french have been directed against such of the neighbouring nations as menaced their liberty. Their victorious arms have spread terror and ravage around them. They have abandoned to the english the empire of the ocean, without remaining wholly inactive themselves. Their privateers have occasioned considerable loss to the enemy's commerce, in the indian seas, as well as those of America and Europe. A squadron has destroyed the fisheries of Newfoundland. They have re-conquered Corsica; they have driven the british from the Mediterranean; they have re-established
their

their marine at Toulon; that of Brest is recovering, and they have conquered a new one at Venice and Corfou: in short, they are now seriously occupied with a descent on England.

‘It would be exceedingly imprudent to consider this project as chimerical. If the war be renewed, it cannot, however, be carried into execution; but if the french have England alone to contend with, they will attain their end, by means of perseverance. The mechanical part of the navy may be acquired by money and population; practice, glory, and rewards, may procure the technical part. The french possess a bold, enterprising spirit, which renders them susceptible of every species of instruction and labour. These reflections cannot have escaped the english government, and must occasion it much disquietude.’

D. now proceeds to tear off what he terms ‘*le bandeau d’illusion*,’ and attempts to prove an invasion not only possible, but actually practicable, by indisputable facts. The events, to which he so triumphantly recurs, will not, however, bear him out; for of the squadron of general Hoche, but a very small portion indeed reached Bantry-bay; and the fate of the ‘*flotilla of four frigates*,’ that reached the coast of Wales, demonstrates, that a small armament, which may accidentally escape the vigilance of our cruizers, will but rush on it’s fate. The channel current, and the periodical winds, are, indeed, favourable to the invaders; but unless a force be landed that can *feed itself*, it would be lost for ever to France, as it must yield to famine and superior numbers. In respect to the transporting a complete army, although not physically impossible in the execution, it is allowed to be extremely improbable; and as to the partial mode of conquering by small and successive embarkations, it appears, on the first blush, to be machiavelian. It is proposed to send over 200 *chasse-marées*, with 100 men, and one piece of cannon in each; 40 gun boats of the new model, carrying two twelve-pounders, and four horses, are to form the advanced guard. Ten sand-bags per man, as many pallisades and pickaxes, are to afford the means of entrenchment. The army thus proposed to be employed, is to consist of 10,000 foot and 500 horse. Now supposing such a body fairly landed, and that it could withstand, for a few days, the united efforts of an armed nation, how is it to be victualled? The following answer to that question would almost tempt a man to suppose, that the general had never crossed between Dover and Calais, as it implies an utter ignorance of naval affairs, at the same time that it supposes the most scandalous inactivity on the part of our own navy: ‘one division of gun-boats may remain with the troops; the others, with the *chasse-marées*, may return to the point of departure, and be every night employed in bringing provision for the entrenched camp, which the enemy’s ships, drawing too much water, and not daring to expose themselves to the red-hot shot of the camp-batteries and gun-boats, cannot approach.’

We shall now take our leave of this very singular pamphlet, which evinces great talents and information, and also abounds

with many striking contradictions, after presenting our readers with one or two of the concluding paragraphs.

' This revolutionary torrent should be opposed by a wall of brass. The shame and calamities, with which France menaces all Europe, can be repelled by arms alone. Should peace be concluded at Rastadt on the conditions imperiously dictated by the directory, Europe is undone. All the states of Europe ought, therefore, to form a new coalition; not to conquer, but to force France to return to it's constitutional principles.

' This confederacy ought to be composed of the nations who still retain their freedom; and they ought to act against that power which persecutes and menaces them all. Spain, Italy, Holland, and Switzerland, are chained to their conqueror; Turkey is a cypher. It is necessary to oppose to France an offensive and defensive league, on the part of Prussia, Austria, the Empire, Russia, Sweden, Denmark, and America; and, if possible, the king of Naples, Switzerland, and Turkey, should accede to it. This confederacy should annul every thing that has been achieved at Rastadt; it should absolutely oppose the descent on England, either by an actual interposition, or by war; it should impose on the belligerent powers a rigorous armistice, and attack the party that refuses compliance.'

ART. XXXI. *A speculative Sketch of Europe, translated from the French of Monsieur Dumouriez. To which are prefixed Strictures upon the Chapter relative to Great Britain.* 8vo. 126 pages. Price 2s. 6d. Hatchard. 1798.

WE have examined this translation, and find it in general very correct. The wish of beholding *un homme-roi* arise in Germany seems to have originated in the scorn, with which Dumouriez affects to behold the princes of that portion of Europe sacrificing the interests of the federal commonwealth to his victorious countrymen. It is not a hero king, but a *man-king*, that he wishes to see, and this phrase has been mis-translated in two different places. Perhaps it was imagined, that it might have given offence.

The 'moral bile,' of Dumouriez, is bitterly complained of, in the 'Strictures upon the Chapter of England;' but this only proves how easy it is to spy *the mote in a brother's eye*: for even here we find some illiberal remarks about 'the most rancorous of our traitors,' and are told, 'that opposition, which so long served as a shield to those doctrines, which alone could have cankered the heart and consumed the vitals of this country, and has been the effective ally of the evil principle of this conflict, is now driven from it's place by the burst of public opinion.'

ART. XXXII. *Thoughts on the French Invasion of England, by General Dumouriez. Translated from the French. Illustrated with a Chart of Great Britain and Ireland, with the Coasts of France, Spain, Portugal, &c. exhibiting all the Channels, Harbours, Bays and Islands, with the exact Bearings and Distance between any two Places.* Third Edition. 4to. 12 pages. Price 1s. 6d. Stockdale. 1798.

THIS is a translation of Chap. X of the *Tableau Speculatif de l'Europe*, eked out with a few paragraphs from other parts of that work.

ART. XXXIII. *Invasion of England! Shall the French come, or not? Or Neighbour's Fare; shewing what Hopes there are, that the Condition of Englishmen will be improved by the French.* 8vo. 15 pages. Price 3d. Rivingtons. 1798.

THIS short pamphlet, unlike many on the same side of the question, is written with every appearance of liberality and candour. In adopting these, the author evinces much more shrewdness as well as policy, than those violent men, who would proscribe their fellow citizens for differing in opinion with them, and are always ready to term an attachment to a well regulated liberty, a *jacobinical* desire of anarchy and plunder. He frankly allows, that there are faults in our government, which want mending; and that whenever these can be rectified, 'we shall be a still greater, and happier, and more flourishing people than we are.'

ART. XXXIV. *A short Account of the Invasion of Switzerland by the French, in a Letter from M. Mallet du Pan to M. de M. Translated from the French.* 8vo. 24 pages. Price 1s. White. 1798.

THIS, which is said to be a translation from a letter written by Mallet du Pan, is dated, 'Frontiers of Switzerland, March 20, 1798.' Whether it be the production of that writer or not, it at least resembles the violence of his declamation, although it is somewhat deficient in that force of expression, and shrewdness of political remark, with which his other works abound.

The expedition against Switzerland is here deemed 'atrocious;' and notwithstanding the encouragement given to the emigrants, both directly and indirectly, it must be allowed, that the provocation on the part of this federal commonwealth was infinitely smaller, than what has been afforded by any of the other powers of Europe.

The 'unheard-of crimes,' perpetrated on this occasion, are said to be 'greater, if possible, than any of those which stain the annals of the french revolution;' and as to the accounts delivered in the french papers, 'official or not official, those records of gross impostures, digested by slaves, do not contain one word on this head which is not a most flagrant violation of truth, and which does not raise the most lively indignation.' The directory, we are told, 'has added perfidy to ingratitude, machiavelism to ferocity, the most absurd pretexts to results still more ridiculous; has deluged with fire and blood a peaceful and flourishing country, as famous for it's wisdom as for the happy effects of it's liberty; a country which all of a sudden, and at it's imperious and tyrannical mandate, has been thrown into a state of desolation, of which it is as difficult to describe the extent, as to ascertain the term when it will end.'

The postscript contains the following concluding paragraphs from a letter of a more recent date.

'I never found myself more oppressed and gloomy than I have been ever since this invasion of *Switzerland*. When it is considered

in all it's hideous circumstances, the hair stands on end.—At the moment of my writing these few lines, I have lost my country; *Geneva* is probably united to France: O God! what an union! The french envoy made the formal demand, signifying, that if it's inhabitants would not anticipate the wish of the directory, the town would be ransacked. Such a world of woe and of crimes, going on unpunished, unrevenged, renders life loathful. The conquest of *Switzerland* makes Germany totter—all shall be granted at *Radstadt*. Now all Europe is concentrated in *England*; it's salvation depends on the fate of that power! We are assured by the author, that the emissaries of Mengaud, 'a jacobin of the first stamp, and perfect adept in (the) new diplomatic science, employed themselves in running over the country, offering a *louis-d'or* to every one who would turn his arms against his brethren.' The acceptance of such a paltry bribe is surely a strong argument against the boasted virtue of the swiss, so often alluded to in this publication.

ART. XXXV. *The Question as it stood in March 1798.* 8vo. 24 pages. Price 6d. Faulder.

IT is the design of this celebrated pamphlet, which is attributed to Mr. Francis, to trace the cause, origin, and effect of the war; and we must say the author has well performed his task. The style is perspicuous and easy, the arrangement judicious, the distinctions acute, the statements correct, and the conclusions fair.—We have only to add that the spirit displayed in this performance is that of a friend to order, freedom, and justice. We read, with emotion, the following paragraph.

P. 20.—'In what condition this just and necessary war, if ever it can be ended, will leave us at last, may appear doubtful to those, who are not struck with the actual result of it. They, who thrive by the present distress, are not likely to be alarmed by future dangers. The vermin feed, and the animal dies. In the last five years, the minister has wasted above two hundred millions of money borrowed, besides all the growing income of the country, and an immense arrear of debt unaccounted and unprovided for. He set out with an association of the principal powers of Europe, whom he paid, and of the inferior states, whom he forced to join in the confederacy; and now we have but one friend left, who, *if not actually negotiating with France*, makes no contribution to the war, and must sink, if she is not supported by the protection of Great Britain. Is there another power in Europe, that would not gladly promote the downfall of England? They see us stand aloof, commanding the sea, and apparently in safety, encouraging, bribing, or bullying other nations to persecute and destroy one another. On the continent, the english government, and not the french, with all their enormities, are considered as the original incendiaries and common enemy of mankind. The french, they say, plunder the house, but the english set it on fire.

'The kingdom of Ireland, constituting a third of the empire, instead of contributing to the common cause, is proclaimed to be in a state of open rebellion, and with difficulty kept down by a great army, paid by England, which ought to have been employed against

against France, but which is now in such a state, as to be formidable to every one, but the enemy. Specific evidence is unnecessary. The condition of the army is sufficient to prove what the condition of the country must be, where soldiers range at large, not only without civil authority, but without discipline. But the groans of Ireland are too distant to be heard. Her sorrows are not seen. The dresses of the opera are corrected, and all the duties of christianity are performed.

'In England and Scotland the general disposition of the people may be fairly judged of by the means, which are said to be necessary to counteract it; an immense standing army, barracks in every part of the country, the bill of rights suspended, and, in effect, a military government.

'Since the year 1793, the property of the public creditor has lost about half its marketable value, which the enormous increase of the mass makes it impossible it should ever recover. The whole effect of a sinking fund of four millions, augmented by the fall of public credit, and acting on a capital so depreciated, is to keep the 3 per cents. at a fluctuating price between 48 and 50. With that prodigious engine of financial power in his hands, the minister has been fearful of encountering another loan; and now he confesses, that, under the measures of his administration, public credit has been so much impaired, that it has become absolutely necessary to give additional support and security to the national funds, by making the land-tax perpetual, and putting it up to auction in Change Alley.

'A few months before payment was stopped at the bank, any man, who had predicted that event, would have been pitied as a madman, or proscribed as a traitor. The bank is identified with government, and, with their connivance, may issue its paper to any unknown amount. An act of parliament is always ready to shelter them from the demands of their lawful creditors. The only effectual security to the public, against an exorbitant emission of bank paper, is to be obliged to pay in specie on demand. Take away that restraint, and then what is the bank, or what may it be, but an instrument of enormous power and fraud in the hands of the minister?

'The final fate of the funds is involved not only in the instant exigencies of the war, but in the necessities which the war will entail on the peace. To provide for the establishments, and to pay the interest of the debt, out of any fund, that does not invade the sources of production, is palpably impossible. But a nation, that supplies its income out of its capital, lives on the seed, and then the question is, not whether a great emergency may not demand and justify a great exertion, but how long the ordinary strength can support the extraordinary effort? The demand, that exceeds the ability, is sure to lessen it; that is, the inability increases with the demand.'

S. A.

ART. XXXVI. *Address from Camille Jordan, Member for the Department of the Rhône to his Constituents, on the Revolution of the fourth of September, 1797. Translated from the French; with an original Preface*

Preface and Notes, by John Gifford, Esq. Author of a Letter to the Earl of Lauderdale; Two Letters to the Hon. Thos. Erskine, &c. 8vo. 140 pages. Price 3s. 6d. Longman. 1798.

CAMILLE JORDAN was one of those members of the legislative body, who were chosen subsequent to the establishment of the constitution of 1795; and one of those unfortunate members, who were denounced on the 4th of september, 1797, as conspirators for the re-establishment of royalty, and banished from their country. The present is an address to his constituents, the lyonnese, exculpatory of his own conduct, and that of his proscribed colleagues, and consequently criminating the measures of the triumphant majority. Camille Jordan has pleaded his cause with considerable ability: his language is animated, though extremely diffuse. For our own part, we have always considered the revolution of the fourth of september as an act of unqualified despotism on the part of the majority: the evidence of the conspiracy was at best insufficient; but had it been complete, had it been of unequivocal validity, the various violations of the constitution by which it was effected, in our opinion, admit of no pardon or palliation. If the exigency of the times be admitted as a principle of authority to sanction one arbitrary measure, it will always be resorted to by the powerful in defence of the most persecuting laws, and the most odious administration. Since the establishment of a republic in France, if a man oppose any measure of the ruling power, in order to make him unpopular and suspected, it has been sufficient to brand him with the name of royalist; precisely as in England every man is a democrat—a word of most sanguinary and detested import! he is beset with spies, and marked as a victim, who denies the immaculacy of parliament, the wisdom, economy, and disinterested honour of administration. ‘Alas!’ says Camille Jordan, ‘do you not know, that it is the first maxim of the great art of revolutions’—he ought to have said *governments*—‘to create certain words, which, though destitute of all signification in themselves, may engender in the ardent and weak imaginations of the multitude, a crowd of ideas which acquire encreased efficacy from the very circumstance of their being indeterminate and obscure? It is the empire of darkness which children people with monsters and phantoms: it is the secret of those terrible words, by means of which the Sybils or Pythia terrified nations, overthrew empires, and had sufficient force of themselves to realize the predictions they had announced.’ This observation is perfectly just; and we wish to impress it on the minds of our countrymen.

Mr. G. has translated this address with considerable spirit. His notes are few, and his preface, like all his other productions, is vulgar, intolerant, abusive, and calumnious. E. D.

ART. XXXVII. *A short Address to the Members of the loyal Associations, on the present State of public Affairs; containing a brief Exposition of the Designs of the French upon this Country, and of their proposed Division of Great Britain and Ireland, into three distinct and independent Republics; with a List of the Directories and Ministers of the same, as prepared by the Directory at Paris. Seventh Edition.* By John Gifford, Esq. Author of a Letter to the Earl of Lauderdale, a Letter

Letter to the Hon. Thomas Erskine, &c. 8vo. 47 pages.
Price 1s. Longman. 1798.

WHEN an invasion of our country is threatened, the joint efforts of a whole people, and unity of interests and opinions, can alone be formidable against a numerous, martial, and perhaps incensed enemy. Every page of this pamphlet is calculated to sow the principles of disunion, suspicion, and terrour. 'Loyal,' by which the author does not seem to mean military associations, are to be re-assembled at this crisis: and the purport seems to be pretty evident, for such are here taught to consider the friends of liberty as the allies of a foreign foe; and their principles being blasted with the accusation of 'jacobinism,' they are told, 'you must either destroy it, or it will destroy you.'

To such, 'the imprescriptible rights of man' may well be represented as a 'nonsensical doctrine;' but it is rather amusing, when we find them complemented as having 'virtually secured the constitutional liberty of the press.'

Mr. G. asserts, that he has received three lists of as many directories for England, Scotland, and Ireland, from France. It may be so, for we would not charge him with the diabolical malice of having fabricated them. But, supposing this to be the case, where is the candour, liberality, or even common honesty, in publishing the names, and such names too, at a time like this, unless he could prove their privacy and approbation. Many of the persons here held forth to the indignation, and, in case of an immediate invasion, perhaps to the daggers of their countrymen, have already smarted under the lash of oppression. Some have been tried for their lives; one is a prisoner at this moment, and another, whose name happens to be omitted, is yet plainly pointed out, by the affected moderation of the author, although about to appear before a jury, on a charge of high treason.

If, after due reflection, such a proceeding does not call up a blush on the cheek of Mr. G., we must pronounce him lost indeed, for he must be insensible to shame, and incapable of amendment!

Mr. G. asserts, that one or two of our newspapers are in the pay of France! Such an assertion is cruel and calumnious, until it be proved to be true. If Mr. G. know it to be true, and do not attempt to prove it, we denounce him as an enemy to the constitution which he affects to adore: if it be not true, the forger of so foul a falsehood is to be shunned by every honest man. s.

ART. XXXVIII. *Opposition dangerous.* By Thomas Lister, B. A.
8vo. 39 pages. Price 1s. Stockdale. 1798.

THIS is a well-written essay, intended to show the advantages of waving all party considerations at the present moment, and uniting to meet the enemy with energy and effect. s.

ART. XXXIX. *A Letter to the Landholders of Great Britain, on the present important Crisis; containing some interesting Observations to Stockholders.* By a Friend to the Landed Interest. 8vo. 86 pages.
Price 2s. Jordan.

THE author of this pamphlet offers many weighty observations to the consideration of the landholders of this country, and such, we think, as ought not to be slighted.

ART. XL. *The important Debate on the Duke of Bedford's Motion for the Dismissal of the present Ministers, with the Speeches of the Duke of Bedford, Marquis of Lansdown, Lord Holland, &c.* 8vo. 6d. Jordan.

ON a debate, the substance of which has already appeared in every newspaper, it is not important that we should enlarge. It is sufficient for us to say, that the editor, in thus attempting to send it abroad in a more permanent form than that of a newspaper, appears to have been animated by a desire to serve his country.

ART. XLI. *Plain Facts. In five Letters to a Friend, on the present State of Politics.* 8vo. 106 pages. Price 2s. 6d. Jordan. 1798.

THIS pamphlet abounds with various and judicious remarks, and correct, apposite, and valuable quotation. It embraces a wide field of inquiry. Early reformation, independence, party, political apostasy, unconstitutional doctrines, lately advanced by authority; adherents of ministry, profusion of public money, national debt, taxation, balance of trade, places, sinecures, pensions, addresses, state of representation, instances of corruption, how nations have lost their liberty, despotism, undue influence, Bolingbroke on parliamentary corruption, the present war, decree of the 19th of november, navigation of the Scheldt, french declaration of war, ministerial alarm, state trials, negotiations for peace, utility of complaint, security for the future, confidence in ministers, Pitt's talents, exertions made in the cause of liberty, innovation, end of government, discretionary power of representatives, annual parliaments, universal representation, public instruction, conduct of elections, compromises, voting by ballot, borough holders, advantages of a true representation of the people, education in Scotland and New England, knowledge unfriendly to arbitrary governments, taxation, state-lottery, criminal code in Tuscany, punishment of death, charitable institutions for male and female outcasts, game laws, farms, liberty of speech, army, barracks, power of the crown, the two bills, aristocracy, violence an enemy to truth and liberty; such are the topics discussed in this work, and discussed with great ability, and with all the ardour of a mind intent upon the public good.

ART. XLII. *Three Warnings to John Bull before he dies.* By an old Acquaintance of the Public. 8vo. 39 pages. Price 1s. 6d. Faulder. 1798.

A MERE party performance, distinguishable for nothing but impertinence. Did this writer ever hear of three warnings to an author? if he did not, we will tell him of them, though we believe, that it is unnecessary for us to give ourselves that trouble, for he will learn what they are in due time. They are expressed in a few words: his friends neglect him, the public despise him, and the booksellers keep his book in confinement. What then shall the poor author do? Why, throw away his pen, and become a soldier; he will be still a volunteer.

ART.

ART. XLIII. *Democratic Principles illustrated by Example.* By Peter Porcupine. Part I. Seventh Edition. 12mo. 3d. Wright.

MR. PORCUPINE is a very violent writer. The subject he has here chosen to write upon suits his genius well. He is in his element, when he is describing the horrors of democratical fury, and he here employs his pen in narrating the bloody reduction of Lyons by the army of the convention. It is impossible to think of these transactions without shuddering, and pouring upon the authors of the misery they produced the most dreadful execrations. We hope, however, more than the truth is told us, and that writers on this subject, dreadful as it is, have increased it's horrors.

We beg leave to assure the author, that we share in all his sensibility on occasion of the massacre at Lyons; but we neither approve of his motives for publishing this account, at this moment, in America, which, we think, tends to stir up strife, not to prevent it; nor do we believe in his representation of the scenes there exhibited to the weeping eyes of humanity. We see many a politician now ready to adopt the maxim of an early religious enthusiast, and to take for his motto

"Credo, quia impossibile est."

S. A.

ART. XLIV. *A farewell Warning to my Country, before the Hour of Danger.* By the Author of 'the Crisis.' 12mo. 32 pa. Pr. 2d. Hatchard. 1798.

AFTER some prefatory remarks, concerning the value of the ancient and venerable fabric of our government, our old and hereditary freedom, our just and equal laws, and 'our sacred christian establishment,' we are here told, that all these depend on our conduct 'in the approaching hour of our trial.'

This is all very good, and admirably well timed; but when the author turns calumniator, libels such of his countrymen as may differ with him in sentiment respecting our internal politics, asserts that they are acting in concert with the enemy, and points them out to the animadversion, and perhaps the vengeance of their fellow-citizens, instead of the thanks, he necessarily incurs the execration of every good man. Here follows an example.

'II. Our second enemy, and I blush to describe him, is that body of degenerate and apostate britons—those unnatural and consummate traitors—*sold to the interests of France*, and weaned from every sentiment of social tenderness for the land of their nativity, who live dispersed and concealed amongst us; miscreants who, under the cover of an infamous secrecy, *stand ready to inflict a wound of death on the heart of their country, and to yield up their fellow-countrymen to misery, proscription, and the sword.* I am willing to grant, that these MONSTERS, considered in themselves, or in respect to us, may be few in number; but considered as acting in concert with an army of successful invaders, as instructed in all their ways, and zealous to promote and imitate all their atrocities, they are too many and too great. My countrymen, NOTE THESE WELL! These are, by many degrees, our most real, most determined, and most destructive enemies.'

The following position is here said to have been published 'under the sanction of a french legislature;' but as it is unauthenticated by any better

better authority than the assertion of our author, we are inclined to consider it in the nature of a *pious fraud*, and intended to unite ourselves by blackening our enemies: 'No MONARCHY above, if we wish to preserve our REPUBLIC below.' The conduct of the french government has of late given rise to many serious and *real* subjects of accusation; it is equally ridiculous and immoral, therefore, to recur to charges not founded on truth.

ART. XLV. *Pacification; or the Safety and Practicability of a Peace with France demonstrated: with Remarks on the Advantage of a Change of Ministry, and the Dangers which threaten both Nations by an obstinate Perseverance in the War.* 8vo. 40 pages. Price 1s. 6d. Jordan. 1798.

SOME obvious truths are here repeated; but they are not likely to be attended to. We shall, however, select a short passage on an interesting subject:

'Reasonable, and timely concessions, prevent the necessity of serious reforms. This is a maxim that cannot be too deeply impressed upon the minds of legislators; because it is clear from the concurrent testimony of history, that the neglect of it, has been the pregnant source of the most trying difficulties, that have embarrassed governments. Had it been remembered, at all times, with attention equal to its importance,—Holland had not been lost to Spain;—America to England;—France to the Bourbons;—nor England to the Stuarts.

'Some may think, perhaps, with archbishop Laud, that, "there is no end of concession." And so we think; and so we are well persuaded, when concession arises from necessity rather than choice. The common progress of mankind, in all ages and countries, seems to be this. They begin with reasonable demands, and proceed to unreasonable: it is the business of authority to draw the line. Authority can lose nothing by judicious concession;—for authority, upon legitimate principles, is so necessary to the tranquillity of the world, and men are so sensible of it, that however in the moments of irritation, they may neglect or abandon it, they will always find it their interest to return to it, as the common pillar that upholds society.'

ART. XLVI. *A Letter to a Merchant, Member of the House of Commons; on his public Declaration, that he sees no Business Bishops have in Parliament.* By a Layman. 8vo. 45 pages. Price 1s. 6d. Bell. 1798.

IT might have been hoped, that the intelligent writer of this letter would have demonstrated the *practical utility* arising from bishops having seats in parliament, and thus put an end to any supposed clamour on that subject. But, as if this were difficult, he attacks his antagonist by way of recrimination; and if he cannot prove, that certain dignitaries of the church ought to sit in one house, he at least gives some strong reasons against the policy of admitting a crowd of mercantile men into the other.

He observes, that, according to the calculations of lord Monboddo, the thirst of gold 'has sacrificed five millions of the inhabitants of India

India to the establishment of a british trade; he then desires the merchants 'to cast a melancholy view along that vast extent of islands, converted into prisons and charnel houses for their african slaves, where the blood of natives became a cement to bind disjointed colonies,'—and then adds, that 'the miserable prospect of mercantile pillage and desolation would only terminate with the boundaries of the world.'

After these facts, whence the extent of the cupidity of merchants may be fairly inferred, he proceeds to state the fatal consequences likely to arise from their immense accumulation of wealth: 'They, who, younger than myself, can expect to see the middle of the ensuing century, will, I fear, discover that parliament still retains its locomotive faculty. The upper house may, perhaps, be allowed to continue on its old foundation some years longer—but the commons will, I make no doubt, ere then, transfer their sittings to the Royal Exchange, and hold their committees at Lloyd's coffee-house. Nothing but their fondness for the west end of the town, can preserve the old fabric from becoming an untenanted ruin; unless, indeed, the good sense of government, co-operating with the energy of the nation, should produce a reform in the representation of the people.'

s.

ART. XLVII. *A Letter to the Inhabitants of Great Britain, occasioned by Mr. Wakefield's Reply to some Parts of the Bishop of Landaff's Address.* 8vo. 55 pages. Price 1s. 6d. Faulder. 1798.

WE cannot praise the writer of this letter. In the first page of it he tells his countrymen, 'that he has had the satisfaction to find that Mr. Wakefield's pamphlet has not escaped the vigilant attention of our government.' Under the conviction, that Mr. Wakefield, or his publishers, is under actual prosecution, and that the sale of his pamphlet is suppressed, he goes on to impute to Mr. Wakefield all the treasonable and malignant intention, of which his own dreams have informed him: and is not this an attempt to influence the jury on Mr. W.'s trial? If this be consistent with english law, or english honour, we confess we weep for our country.

ART. XLVIII. *A Letter to the Right Rev. Bishop of Landaff, recommended to the Perusal of those into whose Hands his Lordship's Address may have fallen.* By a Plebeian. 8vo. 30 pages. 1s. Crosby.

THE bishop of Landaff, we think, will in future be considered as an *unanswerable* writer: for our part, we have no inclination to contend with the bishop, supported with the *powerful* eloquence of sir John Scott.

Yet this impertinent plebeian ventures to attack his lordship, without having the fear of the attorney-general before his eye; and we dare not say, that in argument he is less powerful than Dr. Watson. We give him the praise of courage, and of sufficient ability for discussion; but, feeling that we are on nice ground, we shall adopt the maxim our author has quoted in one part of his pamphlet, and rest from our labours.

"Si populus vult decipi, decipiatur."

S. A.

ART.

ART. XLIX. *An Address to the People of Ireland, on the present Situation of public Affairs.* 8vo. 36 pages. Price 1s. Bell. 1798.

IN the Address to the People of Ireland, now before us, the author advices them to bury their 'degrading animosities,' and adjourn to a calmer moment 'the frivolities of a reform in parliament, and other little abstract notions.' When he exhorts them to this, 'by the blessings of civil liberty,' and the 'enjoyments which constitute their happiness and security,' the reader is naturally inclined to smile.

The present unhappy situation of Ireland must be allowed to afford the most melancholy reflections and presages, to every good and considerate man. We advise such as are inclined to treat on this subject, to banish all little ideas originating in party-spirit; and, if they preach up forgiveness on the one hand, not to forget conciliation and concession on the other.

s.

ART. L. *The Red Basil Book, or Parish Register of Arrears for the Maintenance of the unfortunate Offspring of illicit Amours; with a farther Developement of most shameful and unprecedented Acts of Abuse in the Town of Manchester. Part the First.* By Thomas Battye. 8vo. 110 pages. Price 2s. 6d. Hopper and Son, Manchester.

FROM this publication it appears, that for some years past an intricate and extended system of fraud and oppression has been carried on in the town of Manchester, immediately by overseers of the poor, whose infamous speculations, however, it is suspected, were remotely connived at by persons in office, whose duty it was to have been peculiarly vigilant in the detection of such practices, and foremost in the punishment of them. Two persons of the names of U—, and H—, appear to have been most eminently infamous; for, as in a 'book of disclosures,' formerly published by Mr. B., he brought various specific charges of fraud, perjury, rapacity, &c., against them, which they have made no attempt to invalidate, the evidence of their guilt seems conclusive.

The subject of this pamphlet having a mere local interest, we do not think it necessary to enlarge on it. The people of Manchester are very much indebted to Mr. B. for the ungrateful task which he has undertaken, and for his industry and perseverance in the prosecution of it: he has now opened their eyes to a great variety of the most shameful and infamous proceedings on the part of many of their public officers—which proceedings, he is no doubt prepared to establish, if called upon, by the most clear and unequivocal evidence:—if no 'indemnity,' therefore, can be obtained 'for the past,' it is presumable, that such wise and salutary regulations will be adopted in the police of the town, and such keen supervision employed over the conduct of its officers, as to provide the most ample 'security for the future.'

D. M. M.

ART. LI. *Peace in our Power upon Terms not unreasonable.* By Charles Baring, Esq. 8vo. 39 pages. Price 1s. Cadell and Davies. 1798.

THIS pamphlet comes recommended by the personal respectability of its author, by great candour of statement, and moderation of spirit, and by a correct and easy style. Mr. B. is a matter of fact man; he has been occupied in active pursuits; he has studied commerce in the counting-house, and estimated the credit of nations for the regulation of his own transactions. He has seen many days; has nicely observed the progress of our prosperity, and the symptoms of our decline; has collected wealth from

from prosperous peace, and risked his capital in times of disastrous war. Thus qualified, he speaks to the country, and may he not speak in vain! He is no friend of systematic opposition; he is neither an enemy nor an idolater of ministers. He marked the moment in which we commenced hostilities, he knew *they might have been avoided*. He still thinks peace may be attained at once honourable, beneficial, and lasting; but he has no hope from the *disposition* of the directory, or from an embassy of intrigue. “*Fas est et ab hoste docere;*” and Mr. B. would learn from France, how to influence France. The french divide the people of all countries from the governments, and so would our author. He would begin with one or two manly acts at home. He would pass an act, voluntarily and without solicitation, to abolish our monarch's title of “king of France.” He would then enter into some treaty with the powers at peace, which should guarantee, that neutral ships shall constitute neutral property. He would declare solemnly to all Europe, that it is the intention of Britain always in future to abide by this regulation. We should conciliate much of the friendship of jealous Europe by this measure, in the opinion of our author. After taking these preliminary steps, Mr. B. would publish in England, in the most public manner, the determination of the british government, to make peace with France upon the basis of resigning to the nations at war all our conquests from France, Spain, and Holland. He would then send this proposition to the directory, but not by any great negotiator, who might involve the business in intricacy, and afford ground of suspicions of sincerity to the french people; but by a proper messenger and agent, who should offer it explicitly to the directory, and publish it to all France. In a representative government, the people must always be managed, and in thus convincing the people of our goodwill, we should disarm the directory of their power. Such is the manly plan of Mr. B. We have no doubt of it's efficacy, if the experiment were tried; and, that it is the *interest* of this country thus to make peace, we are fully persuaded. We *wish* this excellent plan may be adopted, but we cannot add *hopes* to our wishes.

S. A.

MISCELLANEOUS.

ART. LII. *Narrative of the Shipwreck of the Juno, on the Coast of Aracan, and of the singular Preservation of Fourteen of her Company on the Wreck, without Food, during a Period of twenty-three Days; in a Letter to his Father, the Reverend Thomas Mackay, Minister of Lairg, Sutherlandshire.* By William Mackay, late second Officer of the Ship. 8vo. 59 pages. Price 2s. Debrett. 1798.

THIS narrative is interesting, on account of the distresses to which the unfortunate passengers and crew of the Juno were subjected; but it is particularly deserving of notice, on account of the period, to which life in some few of them was protracted, and which we believe far exceeds whatever has been recorded on any former occasion.

Mr. Mackay informs his father, that he quitted the vessel to which he had originally belonged, at Rangoon, the chief town of Pegu, and accepted the situation of second mate of the Juno, captain Alexander Bremner, then lying at that place, and taking in a cargo of teak-wood for Madras.

The Juno was a ship of 450 tons burden, very much out of repair, and in all respects badly provided for sea. Her crew consisted of fifty-three men, chiefly lascars, or native seamen, with a few europeans; and they had also on board the captain's wife, her maid, who was a native, and some malays to assist in working the ship; in all seventy-two.

They set sail, may 29th, 1795, 'and beating out with the young ebb, in five to seven fathoms water, with soft mud, about six P. M. shoaled suddenly to a quarter less four fathoms.' On this the ship was immediately attempted to be put about, but the helm was scarcely *a-lee*, when she struck on a hard sand bank. With much difficulty however, and after a variety of precautions, she floated off with the flood, and it was hoped she had not received any material damage. On the first of june, however, a gale having commenced at S.S.W. with a high sea, the vessel laboured much, and very soon *sprung a leak*. During the six days the storm lasted, it required the utmost exertions of all hands without distinction, to keep her free, *pump geer* getting frequently out of order, and to add to this misfortune, there was not a carpenter on board. When the foul weather abated, they discovered a leak between wind and water, which they *patched up*; but on the 12th a severer gale sprung up at W. S. W. and with three pumps and a bucket, they could scarcely keep the water under. Conscious of their danger, they now steered so as to fetch the nearest part of the coast of Coromandel, but before the 18th all the sails were blown away from the yards except the foresail, with which they *lay to*, till the 20th at noon, in latitude $17^{\circ} 10''$ N. and by reckoning, about 9° W. of Cape Negrais.

The ship now pitched so heavy and deep, that they sometimes despaired of her ever rising again, and the people were so much alarmed, that it was with difficulty they were kept to their stations. About noon, they wore, hauled up the foresail, and kept before the wind, under bare poles, uniting in one general effort at the pumps and buckets, in order to clear her, but in vain. At eight the water reached the lower deck, and it was thought advisable to cut away the main mast to lighten the ship, and keep her, if possible from sinking, until morning. About nine this was effected, but the wreck unfortunately falling within board, the men at the helm allowed the vessel to *broach to*, and the sea making a fair passage over all, 'the ship came to her utmost bearings, and instantly settled down; from the sudden jerk she gave, we thought she was going to the bottom, but she went no further than just bringing the upper deck under water. All hands scrambled up the rigging to escape instant destruction, moving gradually upwards as each succeeding wave buried them still deeper. Captain Bremner, his wife, Mr. Wade, and myself, with a few others, then got into the mizen top, all the rest clung about the mizen rigging, except one man, who happening to be forward at the time, gained the foretop. Mrs. Bremner complained much of cold, having no covering but a shift and straw petticoat, and as I happened to be better clothed than her husband, I pulled off my jacket and gave it to her.

'Finding contrary to our first apprehensions, that the ship was not likely to go to the bottom, we cut away with our knives the yards, &c. about the mizen mast, lest the additional weight of so many persons should carry it away. Though the ship rolled so violently that it was with difficulty we could hold ourselves fast, through excessive fatigue

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some went to sleep before day; but, for my part, I could not sufficiently compose myself. At first there did not appear to me the smallest ground for hope, yet after two or three hours reflection, it occurred to me that some vessel might heave in sight before morning.'

At dawn of day, one of the men actually called out a sail! and this was answered by the *mussulmans* with an ejaculation to their prophet; but it proved to be a mistake, which added considerably to the anguish of the sufferers. The shrieks of the women and lascars also increased the general horror; some yielded to their fate at once; some were washed out of the rigging, and the gale, which continued with unabated violence during three days, still further aggravated the misery of their situation.

'We saw,' says one of the survivors, 'that we might remain on the wreck till carried off by famine, the most frightful shape in which death could appear to us. I confess it was my intention, as well as that of the rest, to prolong my existence, by the only means that seemed likely to occur, eating the flesh of any whose life might terminate before my own. But this idea we did not communicate, or even hint to each other, till long afterwards, except once that the gunner (a roman catholic) asked me if I thought there would be a sin in having recourse to such an expedient?'

Mr. Mackay's sensation of thirst being intolerable, he endeavoured to allay it by dipping a flannel waistcoat from time to time in the sea, and applying it to his body; to this he attributes the prolongation of his existence. During the night of the fourth day, he had a very refreshing sleep, and on the 25th, being the fifth day from the ship's going down, two persons died from want. The captain and chief mate, having always professed a great confidence in rafts, one was accordingly prepared, and the people who ventured on it were out of sight by sun-set, but finding themselves once more close to the vessel at day light, they quitted their station, and rejoined their companions at the mast-head.

The letter-writer now had recourse to salt-water, and found after drinking it, that his spirits were recruited, his inward heat had abated, and that he received the benefit of a sound sleep. On the evening of the 28th, they were all greatly relieved by a shower of rain, which infused new life and vigour into them. They afterwards supplied their mouths with temporary moisture, by chewing lead, canvas, &c.

Many of his companions by this time proved delirious, and one of the lascars, whose body broke into ulcers of a very disgusting appearance, having died in the *cat-harpings* just under the mizen top, it remained there, until the stench became intolerable. On the morning of the eleventh day (july 1) Mrs. Bremner found her husband dead in her arms, and the number of the crew was considerably diminished.

The sensation of hunger was now lost in that of weakness, and when the author could get a supply of fresh water, he was comparatively easy. As their strength decreased, so also did their ability to bear the cold; after sun-set, their limbs were benumbed, and their teeth chattered.

At length, on the evening of the 10th of july, and as nearly as they could calculate, the 20th day since the ship went down, one of the crew said, he saw something like land in the horizon to the eastward. In the evening this doubt became a certainty, and it was discovered to be a wild jungle. Soon after this, the ship struck on a rock so violently, as to shake the mast at every thump. At day break the violence of the

motion increased, but the tide having fallen several feet, those who remained alive made shift to reach the upper deck. The lascars began now to search every where for money, and two of them actually refused to assist in bringing down Mrs. Bremner, unless they received eight rupees *on the spot*. In the afternoon, men were observed walking on the beach, but they did not pay any attention to the signals made from the vessel. Six spars were at length launched, and six of the stoutest lascars getting upon them at *young flood*, soon reached the beach, although there was a heavy surf. Next morning, they were observed walking towards a little stream to drink. At noon, a large party of natives made their appearance, and lighted a fire, after which they waved handkerchiefs as signals for those on the wreck to venture on shore.

On this, but not without great difficulty, Mr. M. and his boy, tumbled a spar into the water, and he swam after it, but it being round, it turned frequently and threw him off; on this he lay along side of it; with one hand and one leg over it, and in that position made for the land, which he was at length lucky enough to reach.

Having thrown himself down under a rock, he fell fast asleep, and remained in that condition until he was awakened by three or four of the natives, who told him they were the english east india company's *tyots*, or peasants, and that he was only six day's journey from Chittagong. Accordingly, partly by their means, and partly by the assistance of a portuguese pedlar, he was enabled to reach the company's territories, along with Mrs. Bremner, and all the survivors of this disastrous shipwreck.

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ART. LIII. *The Names of the Nobility, Gentry, and others, who contributed to the Defence of this Country at the Time of the Spanish Invasion, in 1588. With a brief Account of their spirited and patriotic Conduct on that Occasion.* 4to. 72 pages. Price 4s. Leigh and Sotheby. 1798.

THE object of this publication is thus stated in the Introduction: 'The following lists of the nobility, gentry, and others, who contributed to the defence of this country in 1588, at the time of the spanish invasion, are taken from a manuscript written in that year, and are now laid before the public, to point out the dangers which threaten us, and to stimulate our fellow subjects at this awful crisis, to follow the example of their ancestors, by uniting for the defence of our religion, laws, liberties, and property, and whatever may be considered as valuable to Englishmen, against inveterate foes, who seek the destruction of our happy constitution.'

LITERARY

LITERARY INTELLIGENCE,

HISTORY OF ACADEMIES.

ART. I. ROYAL SOCIETY OF SCIENCES AT COPENHAGEN.

The prize for the question on the mechanical advantages and disadvantages of carts and waggons [see our Rev. Vol. xxiv, p. 444] has been adjudged to prof. Nich. Fufs, of Petersburg. On each of the other two questions [ib.] a single paper was sent, but neither of them afforded any satisfactory answer.

ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY.

ART. II. Budiffin & Zittaw. *Briefe über Herrnhut, &c.* Letters on Herrnhut and the Evangelical Brotherhood; with an Appendix. By Christian Theoph. Frohberger. 8vo. 566 pages. 1797.

Mr. F., who is a protestant clergyman in the neighbourhood of Herrnhut, gives, in the introduction, some observations on the life and character of Zinzendorf; in chap. 1, the history of Herrnhut; in chap. 2, it's topography, with the manners, &c. of the inhabitants; and in chap. 3, the constitution of the united brethren. The 2d chapter is wholly the author's own, and conveys much information that is new, for no topography of the place had hitherto been published. The appendix contains an account of the communities, colonies, and missions of the brethren in different parts of the world, a general character of the society, and miscellaneous observations.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

MEDICINE.

ART. III. Paris. *Observations sur la Nature & sur le Traitement du Rachitisme, &c.* Observations on the Nature and Treatment of the Rickets, or Curvatures of the Spine, and of the superiour and inferiour Extremities, by Ant. Portal, Prof. of Physic at the College of France. 8vo. 388 p. 1797.

Bouvard's successful employment of mercurials in the treatment of the rickets attracted the attention of prof. P., who has had the opportunity of extensive experience in this disease at Paris, where it appears to be eminently prevalent. The prof. suspects, that it is never a primary disease, though it may sometimes appear to be so, from our inability to trace it's remote cause; but that it always originates from lues venerea, scrofula, scurvy, obstructions of the abdominal viscera, exanthemata, or rheumatic gout; or, though less frequently, from castration, or onanism. The treatment of course depends on the cause that has produced the disease.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.

ART. IV. Halle. *Von den Nebengefäßen der Pflanzen, &c.* On the accessory Vessels of Plants, and their Uses. By Francis von Paula Schrank. 8vo. 94 p. 3 plates. 1794.

Mr. S. examines the different kinds of hairs and glands that appear on plants, chiefly with a view to their offices in the economy of vegetable life. Beside the various services they have been commonly supposed to perform, he imagines them to be destined principally for the absorption or discharge of fluids. *Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

GEOGRAPHY.

ART. V. Zurich. *Versuch eines Handbuchs der Schweizerischen Staatskunde, &c.* Sketch of a Manual of the Statistics of Switzerland, by J. Jasp. Fäsi, Prof. of Hist. and Geogr. 8vo. 329 p. 1796.

We know no book on the subject, that conveys so much accurate information as this, in so short a compass. The author is the son of the late J. Conr. Fäsi, well known for his Geography of Switzerland. He is also publishing a periodical work, entitled, *Bibliothek der Schweizerischen Staatskunde*, 'Repository of the Statistics, Geography, and Literature of Switzerland;' of which three volumes, about 400 pages each, in 8vo, have already appeared; and in which the public will receive much information, and correction of mistatements, respecting that country. *Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

ART. VI. Riga. *Statistische Uebersicht der Statthalterschaften des russischen Reichs, &c.* A Statistical View of the Governments of the Russian Empire, with respect to their most remarkable Circumstances, in Tables, by H. Storch. Sm. fol. 131 p. 1795.

These tables give much very accurate statistical information respecting the forty five russian governments, which existed before the last division of Poland. *Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

POLITICAL ECONOMY.

ART. VII. Zurich. *Christian Ulrich Detlev von Eggers Archiv für Staatswissenschaft, &c.* C. U. D. von E.'s Archives of Political Economy and Legislation. Vol. I. 8vo. 574 p. 1795. Vol. II. 388 p. 1796.

Mr. von E. has been extracting for some years whatever he deemed most valuable in the various little tracts on subjects of legislation and political economy published between the years 1774 and 1795; and having digested them under their respective heads, in alphabetical order, he is now giving them to the public, interspersed with his own remarks. The design is good, and many valuable hints may thus be preserved, which otherwise probably would be lost: but we fear his work will prove too voluminous; as the 2d vol. appears not to have exhausted the letter A. In the mean time, to keep pace with the progress of knowledge, and preclude the necessity of a future supplement, he is publishing a work on a similar plan, which is to consist

consist of excerpts from tracts subsequent to 1794, and occasional corrections or additions to the archives. The first volume of this work came out last year, under the title of:

- ART. VIII. C. U. D. von E. *Annalen der Staatswissenschaft, &c.*
C. U. D. von E.'s Annals of Political Economy. Vol. I. For
the Year 1795. 8vo. 393 p. *Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

CLASSICAL LITERATURE.

- ART. IX. Paris. *Vie de Julius Agricola, &c.* The Life of J.
Agricola by Tacitus. A new Translation by Des * * *. 12mo.
172 p. 1797.

The anonymous author has taken great pains with this translation, on which he spent two years, which he wrote over five times, and corrected still oftener: and we own he has produced, to reward him for his trouble, one of the best translations of his author we have seen, though the french language is ill-adapted to express the force and brevity of the original. The sense of Tacitus appears seldom to be misrepresented, and not often enfeebled by interpolated particles.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

HISTORY.

- ART. X. Halle. Prof. Mangelsdorff has published an abridgment of his Ancient History [see our Rev. Vol. xxvi, p. 533] in one volume 8vo, 396 p., with 5 chronological tables.

- ART. XI. Aurick. *Ostfriesische Geschichte, &c.* The History of
East Friesland, by Tileman Dothias Wiarda, Secretary to the
States of East Friesland. Vols. I—VII. 8vo. 3538 p. 1791—7.

We mention this copious history on account of it's accuracy, authenticity, and impartiality. It comes down to the year 1734.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

BIOGRAPHY.

- ART. XII. Amsterdam. *Jan Hendrik van Swinden Lykrede op Pieter Nieuwland, &c.* An Eulogy on P. Nieuwland, read in the Society Felix Meritis at Amsterdam, Nov. 24, 1794, by J. H. van Swinden. 8vo. 172 p. 1795.

P. N., who died at the age of thirty, was a man of extraordinary talents, which he applied chiefly to mathematics and navigation. He was prof. of natural knowledge, the higher mathematics, civil and military architecture, hydraulics, and astronomy, at Leyden. His genius displayed itself at a very early age; though till he was eleven years old his only master was his father, a carpenter by trade, but fond of books, and no despicable mathematician. Prof. N. was also a poet, in which quality we have already had occasion to speak of him [see our Rev. Vol. II, p. 512].

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

DRAMA.

- ART. XIII. Leipzig. *Grundlinien zu einer Theorie der Schauspiellkunst, &c.* Elements of a Theory of the Art of Acting, with the
Analysis

Analysis of a comic and tragic Part, Shakspeare's Falstaff and Hamlet. 8vo. 134 p. 1797.

This work, which is intended as the precursor of one of greater extent, possesses much excellence. The investigation of the character of Falstaff we think uncommonly successful. The author is the chamberlain von Einsiedel of Weimar. *Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

MISCELLANIES.

ART. XIV. Madrid. *Observaciones sobre la Historia natural, &c.* Observations on the Natural History, Geography, Agriculture, Population, and Produce, of the Kingdom of Valencia. By Don Ant. Jos. Cavanilles. 2 Vols. Fol. 574 p. With maps and several plates. 1795-7.

This is undoubtedly one of the most important works, that has appeared concerning Spain in modern times. The author is already known to the world as an eminent botanist, and has been employed by the king of Spain, ever since the year 1791, in making a botanical tour of the Spanish provinces: in the mean time, to render his journey of more general utility, he has extended his observations to other subjects. *Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

DICTIONARIES.

ART. XV. Madrid. It gives us no unfavourable idea of the state of literature in Spain, to hear, that a translation of the great French Encyclopedia into Spanish has made some progress, and is greatly superiour to the original. The parts published are 1. The Natural History of Animals, Vols. I, II, small fol. 1411 p. 1788. Occasional additions with respect to Spanish and American animals occur, and some new American species. 2. Dictionary of Grammar and Literature, Vol. I, 630 p. 1788. This goes no farther than the letter *A*. Beside some new articles, the numerous additions consist principally of examples from Spanish poets and orators. 3. The military Art, Vol. I, 563 p. 1791. *A to Cazador*. The translator observes, that this division of the French Encyclopedia was, for the most part, a literal translation from the Military Reflections of the Marq. de Santa Cruz de Mercenado, a Spanish work. Above a hundred new articles and additions are to be found in the letter *A* only. 4. Academical Arts [Riding, Dancing, Fencing, and Swimming], in one vol. complete. 550 p. 1791. On account of the many new articles, additions, and corrections, what relates to the art of riding may be considered as an original performance. 5. Modern Geography, Vols. I, II, 1260 p. *A—L*. 1792. Very many additions, and important corrections, with regard to Spain and America, are here made. 6. Arts, Trades, and Manufactures, 2 Vols. 1226 p. complete. 1794. Almost every article has additions, relating to the arts and manufactures of Spain, and some new articles are added. 7. Plates, Vol. I. 1794. This volume contains 192 plates belonging to the subject of arts, trades, and manufactures. The paper and print of this translation are both much superiour to those of the French work.

FOR THE
ANALYTICAL REVIEW,
FOR MAY, 1798.

A
RETROSPECT OF THE ACTIVE WORLD:

OR,

A GENERAL REVIEW OF DISCOVERIES, INVENTIONS,
AND PRACTICAL CONTROVERSIES, AND CONTESTS.

As the manufacture of wool is still the principal, and, as it were, the national manufacture, by way of eminence, of this country, it becomes a matter of great satisfaction, to be informed of any invention by which the process of so important a business is facilitated.

MR. JOHN HAWKESLEY, of Arnold, in the county of Nottingham, worsted manufacturer, has obtained a patent for certain improvements and additions to machinery for combing wool, cotton, silk, flax, hemp, and mohair; being a circular, revolving comb-pot, to heat the combs, to aid in the combing of wool; and a lasher or layer-on of wool, or other materials, on the said combing machine; and a socket or holster, in which to place the combs, in their respective compartments, for drawing off the wool.

Mr. Adam Scott, of Guildford, Surrey, has invented a machine for draining land, called a mole-plough: which is found to answer every purpose of under-ground draining, without breaking the surface any more than by a thin coulter being drawn along, the mark of which disappears in a few days. A man and a boy, with four horses, may drain thirty acres in a day, provided there be an open gripe, or ditch, cut at the lower side of the ground, to be thus drained, in order to receive the water from those small cavities which the plough forms in the ground, at the depth of twelve inches, or more. The method of using it is, to go down and up, at the distance of fifteen, twenty, or thirty feet, as the land may require. This alludes to grass land: but it is equally good in turnip ground, where it is too wet for sheep to feed them off; or, on any land that is too wet to sow: either of which evils it will remedy in a very short time, provided that there be some declivity in the ground. The best time for this operation in grass land, is, in October or November, when the land has received moisture enough for the plough to work, but not so much as to injure the land, or render it soft. This
plough

plough is strongly recommended by various testimonies: and seems to us to be a very useful, as well as simple invention.

For this invention a bounty was voted by the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, to Mr. Scott, of thirty guineas. When bounties for machines are given by that society, it is always upon condition that the machine, or a model thereof, shall be deposited in the society's collection for the use of the public. It is also expressly stated, 'that no person shall receive any premium, bounty, or encouragement, from the society, for any matter for which he has obtained, or proposes to obtain a patent.' We think it a duty to the public, at the same time that we notice every ingenious discovery and invention, to extend, by our journal, the circulation of the following particulars concerning moral conduct, declared to the world in the Transactions of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, &c. 'The bounty abovementioned, was given to Mr. Scott in the spring of the year 1797, and, in the month of october following, a patent was taken out by Mr. Henry Watts, of Binley, Warwickshire, for an implement for draining land, in principle and construction extremely similar to those of Mr. Scott's invention. Mr. Scott, (and of this the society think it highly important to inform the public) who sold his mole plough for about two guineas, is now an agent for the sale of Mr. Watts's patent implement, at the enormous price of ten guineas. Such as desire a farther account of this matter, will find a letter concerning it, in the Gentleman's Magazine, for February, 1798.

THE ART of giving to linen and cotton a deep, and lasting black colour, is well known to be attended with considerable difficulty. A method has at last been invented of dying linen and cotton a beautiful, deep, and lasting black colour, by Mr. Bagler, of Weilburg. Extracted from Crell's Chemical Annals.

CARRONADE.

THOUGH this be not a recent invention, in artillery, the important application of it may be justly considered as such. Things are discovered first; their uses afterwards.

The late repulse of the french flotilla from La Hogue, in the attack on the isles of Marcou, by the small british force, stationed there, excited, naturally, a curiosity to inquire into the circumstances and cause of so striking an effect. And we learnt, that very great execution had been done among the french gun-boats, by shells discharged from sixty-eight pounder guns: which, on further inquiry, we found were no other than carronades of eight inches caliber. The carronade is a most formidable implement of war. Although of very light construction, it is fit for the projection of solid, ship, or hollow shell, or carcass shot, &c. The origin, and progress of this species of artillery, which has, of late, especially in pieces of small dimensions, been very generally used in the navy, is as follows. A captain in his majesty's twenty-fifth regiment of foot, and now a veteran general, had, when in garrison in the fort of Cove, in Cork harbour, about forty-four years ago, projected and proposed pieces for the better defence of that fort against any attack by sea, of a middling kind between the howitzer and the cannon, in order to
unite,

unite, as far as possible, the advantages of both, without the inconveniencies of either; by their having chambers, like the former, with a large caliber, but of a much stronger construction, and yet not of half the weight of an ordinary cannon of the same bore. This proposal had been submitted, and approved by his royal highness the duke of Cumberland, but no such pieces of artillery were constructed until about twenty years ago; when a rupture with France, in the time of the american war, induced the projector of them, at that time in Scotland, with the concurrence of sir Adolphus Oughton, then commander in chief there, engaged for their construction, and also attend trials of them, at the Carron foundery, whence they took their present name. And the largest sort, being of eight inches caliber, produced such formidable effects, by the bursting of shell fired from them, as suggested the idea, that their use in close fighting, would be a most decisive advantage, and, therefore, very deserving of encouragement from the british navy. Reports to that effect, were accordingly made. But *carronades* being regarded as *novelties**, the use of them scarcely received any sanction from public authority. The smaller sort, however, speedily used by privateers, afterwards made their way into frigates. And, since the commencement of the present war, the advantage of the larger sort of carronades, with different kinds of shot, according to the ideas of the first projector, has been so well understood, that many of them have been introduced, for the protection of the coast, into the floating, as well as land batteries. And that ingenious engineer, captain Schank, has lately invented a method of using, and making them to bear, with great effect, even from the common boats of merchantmen: of which most important discovery, whereby a number of trading vessels, sailing together, may defend themselves against the attacks of privateers, we shall give an account in our next Retrospect of the active World.

NATIONAL AFFAIRS.

THIS month has presented to Europe a scene of most interesting events. The offended spirit of the british nation has rushed voluntarily, and at once, into arms. A congenial spirit has roused America. The people in Vienna have testified their indignation at the tri coloured flag. A strong naval force from La Hogue has been repulsed by a small british garrison on the rocks of Marcou, and in answer to the loud menaces of invasion, by the *great nation*, a counter-invasion from this devoted island touches on the enemy's coast, destroys the labour of years, and the means of support, and communication, between different cities and provinces. The progress of anarchy begins to be checked. A standard is raised up, to which the nations

* It must be acknowledged that there is, in this nation, a great backwardness to adopt, and indeed a great prejudice and aversion to every thing that has the appearance of novelty, however reasonable or useful. This prejudice is generally strongest in the least cultivated nations. If this be true, what is to be said, when we reflect that the french, amidst all their present extravagancies and atrocities, are readier to attend to, and to adopt useful discoveries than we are?
who

who wish to preserve their rights and property may resort with hopes, if not of immediate, yet of ultimate success.

The whole of the present confusion and trouble of Europe is, a barbarous attack on the grand cement of civil society; the grand principle that unites men in a social state, and carries them forward in a general course of co-operation for mutual conveniency and comfort. It is property, the *meum* and *tuum*, that is the most general motive of human actions. It is the security of this that is the great end and bond of society. The co-estates of Europe; all civilized nations had long gone hand in hand together, in the common paths of peaceful commerce. Even in times of war, the dominion of morality was acknowledged, the rights of nations respected. The french republic provoked, by the aggression of her neighbours, equally impolitic and unjust, almost to the madness of despair, turns suddenly on her companions, disclaims all regard to laws, human or divine, and openly professes, by physical force, to pursue the great end of physical enjoyment. The rulers of France, with arms in their hands, propose to make all other nations hewers of wood and drawers of water, and that they, themselves, like the ancient romans, shall live like sovereign princes. As the price of peace, to peaceable nations, they demand contributions for their own private state, as well as for the public revenue. In a word, other nations are to be slaves: the french, under the affected name of citizens, to be the only gentlemen! In the early or rude states of society the stronger family oppresses the weaker; the stronger, the weaker tribe; and the stronger, the weaker nation. The captive becomes the slave of the conqueror. All labour is commanded by force. It is long, very long, before personal and prædial slavery are banished from any country*. But in the progress of society, it is found by experience that industry, the source of wealth, is better promoted by justice and liberty, than by injustice and slavery. While this truth is ripening into general acceptance, the advancement of the arts and sciences mollify the human mind, teach men to sympathise with one another, and to own a common standard of judgment concerning their mutual transactions, not only as individuals, but as nations. And, among the most ancient nations, placed in the happiest climates, and where there seems to be the liveliest sensibility to moral relations, PUBLIC CREDIT, the universal hanker, on whose pledged faith all depend, is not to be ruined even by revolutions of government. The springs of war depend upon the credit of a CASTE, whose business it is to keep the money of the land: and this tribe the sovereign is obliged to respect whether he be an hereditary sovereign, or a sovereign by conquest. This caste lends him the money that is necessary for him, pay his army, and feed his court, and, for repayment of such loans, he gives them orders on the cultivators of the ground†. In China, when

* Even in the british empire slavery still exists in the colonies: and imprisonment for debt in Britain!

† By an adoption of this mode of hindoo finance, happily discovered by Mr. Grant, of Red-Castle, the governor general of India, about the year 1786, restored order to the embarrassed affairs of the East India company, and effected a clear saving of one million in their annual expenditure.

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many neighbouring nations, of which that empire was once composed, made war on one another, and supported it with base money, such money was called in, on the restoration of peace, and nothing was attempted by government to be circulated as money, but the precious metals, and useful merchandize. In the west the order of things is different; the whole body of the people are, or may become, money-lenders, and pledge mutual security for the repayment of loans. Hence it is, that those who are chosen, and call themselves the representatives of the people, can make gold of linen rags *. The funded system of England had victoriously fought her wars, and extended her commerce. The paper system of the americans effected their object; and, the assignats of the french revolution, on the gulph of bankruptcy, paved the road to conquest. The grand conclusion that we draw, from all these observations, and to which we have thought it our duty to call the attention of the world, from time to time †, is, that as the disorder has arisen, and been continued by a constant opposition to the great principles of civil order, so the remedy for the present, and the preventive of future disorders, must be sought for, and will be found, in a re-establishment of the authority of those principles, namely, the protection of private property, and the security of the rights of nations. We have long endeavoured to show, that the best check on the progress of anarchy in Europe would be, the consolidation of her funded debt, on the principles of the funded system. The converse of this system, is the real project of the anarchists.

From the business of the village, to that of the district, the province, the kingdom, and the circle of kingdoms, that trade, and even fight with each other, all business is done by credit, which, under every variation, has but one touchstone, that of realization. It follows, of course, that the nation which, with a defensive situation, and great resources by sea and land, should declare herself the defender of the common rights of all nations, is that which must in the end prevail; and, in secure and extended commerce, reap the fruits of so just and glorious a system. She would become the centre of civilization. Her armies and navies would have constant occasion for exertion, in protecting the weaker and suffering states; and, like a well disposed and wise individual, find felicity in a virtuous course of action.

* Frederic the Great described Washington, whom he gave as a toast, as 'the man who made gold of rags, as well as heroes of husbandmen.'

† We referred to publications recommending an union of force and finance, as being necessary to repress the spoliations of anarchy, and the impositions of a fraudulent paper, particularly the Correspondence of a Traveller with a Minister in Turin, 1792. We are not displeased to find the outlines of a system which we have long recommended espoused by Dumouriez, who, in a late publication, clearly demonstrates, that it is the common interest of every one of the co-states of Europe, in defeating the project of France, for overturning the credit of Great Britain; and compelling the rulers of that unhappy country to offer peace to Europe, on terms favourable to the cause of justice and civilization.

Were the british nation, drawing her freedom and superiority from public credit, to announce herself, in conjunction with America, and be regarded as the protectress of property, in all the circles of civilized order, might it not be expected that the predatory exactions of the common enemy, in Germany, Switzerland, Italy, Spain, and America, would meet with a constitutional check? This is the ground from which Great Britain ought never to have departed, and on which, perhaps, retracting and disavowing her errors, she might still take her stand with great glory, and gain the title of the JUST: and as such, in reality, THE great NATION?

A declaration to this effect, sent to the congress at Rastadt, would give new life to that council. Would France, elated as she is, dare to reject that declaration? Her own army, convinced that it is only from the funding of her credit that they could ever expect payment of their promised milliard, would chain the directory to attention: and all the proprietors of France would become parties to the same cause. The swiss nation, well knowing the connection between property and liberty, would reclaim their rights on the ground of the proposed declaration by Great Britain. Italy, panting for real liberty, and the real security of property—Italy, where modern finance, propagated, like the rudiments of all good arts, from the east, first established her banks and her funded system, would soon realize her national dignity. Spain and Holland would then see that it was not the ambition of England to seize their fortified rocks, their capes, and their islands, nor even the ships of Toulon, that stood in the way of peace, and that the real enemies of their national independence, were the predatory projects of anarchy.

But, in order to effect these grand and benignant purposes, all that Henry IV, Sully, Elizabeth, and Leopold II, had devised, must be brought into real action. The commanding, as well as just and amiable genius of a Henry IV, perhaps, at the present instant, might move England, Prussia, Russia, Austria, and Naples, into unison: nor are understandings or dispositions wanting in France, ready to make so natural, so interesting a compromise with revolution. Alas! it seems to be the destiny, perhaps the necessary occupation of mankind, to attain political happiness, in the same manner as the other enjoyments of their nature. Hunger, thirst, cold, and want, must precede their relative gratifications: war, misery, and universal suffering, are destined to be the preceptor of nations, for instructing them how to attain political happiness with pacific dispositions. But has not Great Britain already paid her tribute, in her civil, her revolutionary, and her colonial wars? It will become her, on the ground of universal philanthropy and justice, to teach to others by her wisdom, the knowledge she has acquired in the school of her own adversity. In the present sketch, our readers will perceive, we have not passed, according to our usual route, from one nation of Europe to another; but considered the whole, in relation to the important question of political subjection or independence: as crouching under the rod of France, or looking up, with renovated courage and hope, to the standard of freedom, raised by the great anglo-american nation, still united in sentiment, though divided by political forms, and extending the zone of public credit, westward from the cimbrian Chersonesus and the thracian Bosphorus,

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over the great Atlantic, and Pacific oceans, even to the shores of India and China, where it was first established. It is an interesting, and a pleasing spectacle to observe Great Britain, the parent-empire of well regulated freedom, hand in hand with America, her first-born child, checking the juvenile madness of the youngest branches of the family: vindicating her original doctrines against the precipitate subtleties and destructive innovations of her pupils. It fully appears, that all deviations from british and american freedom, by attributing a much greater portion of virtue to individuals, and understanding to communities, than is to be justified by any experience of mankind, are, practically speaking, not improvements, but degenerations.

It is not permitted, by our limits, to enter particularly, at this time, into the several divisions of the powers on the continent, any farther than just to notice, that the demands of the directory for the final adjustment and ratification of peace with the empire, cannot be granted without a surrender of Germany to the french republic: and appear, indeed, to be intended as a ground and provocation to war. And it is this circumstance, with the wise and spirited resolution of the americans, that form a crisis, which, in our opinion, calls on the nations to choose this day which party they will follow, liberty, property, and present exertion, under the re-union flag of America and Great Britain; or subjection and slavery, and a precarious possession of what may have escaped the eyes or the hands of rapacity, under the tricolore ensign of the present rulers of France. But, we cannot pass by a very important change, that has in some measure begun, and seems in train for being carried on, and completed in the internal regulation of our own country. We allude to the assessed taxes, and the sale of the land tax, which seem to be forerunners to a further land tax, and an equal taxation of all property. It is contended by some, that merchandize, or commodities of all kinds as they pass from hand to hand, are the best subjects of taxation: by others, that the revenue would be more certain, and less burthensome, if it were laid on real and personal property. In a former number, we gave it as our opinion, that the minister had it graciously in contemplation, to oblige both parties. We trace this intention through a very curious process; which it may be worth while to notice, as it may be a clue for anticipating the designs of administration in other instances. An equal, and even progressive land tax, in lieu of many, nay, and perhaps of all taxes, was first held in private circles by persons of all ranks and conditions. By and by, paragraphs and essays to the same purpose, appear in all the ministerial news-papers. Next comes out a book, written for the express purpose of showing that an equal and progressive land-tax, according to the real rents of estates, instead of every other tax whatsoever, would be, not only the most certain and productive to government, but the easiest to be born by the farmers, the people, and even the landlords. This book, entitled *Essential Principles of the Wealth of Nations*, is written by Mr. Gray*,

* The university of St. Andrew's, of which the right hon. Mr. Dundas is *chancellor*, immediately conferred on Mr. Gray (of whom we do not say, nor think, that he did not otherwise deserve it,) the honorary degree of L. L. D.

of Somerset-house, who had often before suggested hints for finance, that had been accepted. Last of all, comes a petition for a direct tax on real and personal estates, in lieu of all assessed taxes, from the county of Dunbarton *. Thus much for the manner in which the public mind has been gradually prepared for the grand tax, which although it very much resemble the forced contributions of France, we do not altogether condemn. Two happy consequences will arise from it: one respecting government or administration; the other respecting the people and the constitution.

When the adherents of ministers, as well as those of their opponents, find that *their property* is to be equally taxed with that of other men, they will begin well to weigh the reasons that are alleged for war, and understand that of Horace, or rather Homer,

‘*Quicquid delirant reges plectuntur Achivi.*’

For what concerns the people and constitution. Universal and equal taxation, as it ought to be the fruit, is also the best substitute for universal suffrage. What was produced by suffrage universally, indeed numerically assumed, in 1789, by the people of France? Those majorities of representatives from the lower and poorer orders, who confiscated, without hesitation, the lands of the clergy, of the nobles, and the crown, and finally, all that was landed or real property in France. The paper-money hypothecated on those properties, the celebrated assignats, became the treasury of the revolution, and the guillotine its chancellor of the exchequer. Six millions of the very people who enjoyed that original universal suffrage which created their representative assemblies, conventions, and councils, have been the successive victims of one radical error in this free constitution: in the framing of which it was not foreseen, that any representation of the people of a great state, which could avail itself legally of confiscation, for taxation, a representative government not exercising a just taxation of property, is a despot more dangerous than any tyrant in Asia or Turkey. In those countries the tyrant must, for his own sake, preserve the regular chain of property, in order that he may anticipate the supplies necessary for the pay of the army which maintains his power. Hence it is, as we have had several occasions of observing, that revolution in despotic countries, affects chiefly the hands that hold the reins of government: Whereas, in Europe, in our days, revolution is an anarchy that destroys the people, who seek reform and liberty without first understanding that neither can exist without a due respect to the relations of property. It is upon this ground that Dumouriez says, very truly, that ‘democracy, after destroying Europe, must destroy itself.’ The harvest will not spring where the fields are not sown: nor can bread be found, if protection be not afforded to the property of the reaper. This is no new doctrine. It only asserts an inseparable connection between liberty and justice.

* This tax is founded on the same principles with that held forth for many years, with equal patriotism and wisdom, by that excellent citizen Sir Francis Blake. How much to be lamented, that any small degree of wisdom, apparent in our public councils, is, for the most part, dictated by the pressure of necessity, not the anticipations of reason!